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Combating Sexual Violence on College Campuses: Exploring the Relationship Between Values and Bystander Intervention Among College Students

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Abstract

Sexual violence is a serious problem on college campuses, and research indicates that bystander intervention is one way to reduce rates of violence. This quantitative study analyzed survey data (N = 696) from a small, private, religiously affiliated university on the West Coast of the U.S. to explore the relationship between values and bystander intervention behavior in incidents of college sexual assault. Survey data included the Higher Education Data Sharing Consortium (HEDS) Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (2019) with additional questions about personal, peer, and institutional values adapted from the Character Education Values and Practices Inventory (CEVPI, Chen, 2005). Data analysis revealed that the majority of participants who observed an incident of sexual assault (67%, n = 68) intervened to help the victim. Additionally, in active and potential incidents of sexual assault, bystander intervention rates were similar (66%, n = 35 for active sexual assaults, 67%, n = 67 for potential sexual assaults). On average, bystanders used two intervention strategies during both types of incidents to help the victim, with the most common intervention strategy being asking if the victim needed help. Additional analysis revealed that women were significantly more likely than men to involve others as an

intervention strategy (p = .034), and men appeared to be more likely than women to confront the perpetrator, with marginal significance (p = .056).

Findings related to values revealed that the top personal value was compassionate (47%), top peer value was respectful (31%), and top value promoted by the institution was faithful (39%). Men and women had statistically significant (p < .05) differences in their selected top personal values for 10 of the 42 values. Greater intervention in a sexual assault situation was associated with the personal value of compassionate (p = .039), the peer values of committed (p = .009) and/or responsible (p = .049), and the institutional values of devout (p = .030) and/or persevering (p = .027). This study highlights the need to continue sexual assault prevention education and bystander intervention training on college campuses. Furthermore, this study indicates that understanding the role values play in bystander intervention may provide opportunities to create stronger pro-social campus communities.

Keywords: college/university students, bystander intervention, personal values, peer values, institutional values, sexual assault

Dedication

For the helpers.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Sexual violence is a serious problem on college campuses. One in four undergraduate college women, one in 15 undergraduate college men, and one in four undergraduate transgender/gender queer/gender non-conforming students are sexually assaulted during their time in college (Cantor et al., 2020). Additionally, 80% of sexually violent acts involving college students are committed by someone the victim knows (Campbell et al., 2021; Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Specifically, most college sexual assaults involve women being sexually assaulted by men that they know and trust (Krebs et al., 2007). Male college students are 78% more likely to be victims of sexual assault than their same aged non-college peers (Sinozich & Langton, 2014). Most college student sexual assaults occur when female victims are incapacitated (Campbell et al., 2021), primarily due to alcohol (Krebs et al., 2007). College sexual assaults are more common in the fall semester (Krebs et al., 2007). Specifically, the first months of freshman year, from August through October, have been found to be the time college women are at greatest risk of sexual assault (Krebs et al., 2016).

This high prevalence of sexual assault is even more problematic given that research (e.g., Patterson Silver Wolf et al., 2016; Stephens, 2016) indicates that sexual and gender-based violence has a negative impact on college students and their academic success. Additionally, campus sexual assault has been found to negatively impact student mental health and well-being (Mellins et al., 2018). For example, a

significant relationship has been found to exist between intimate partner violence and post-traumatic stress disorder in college women (Bowler, 2018). Furthermore, sexual assault victimization has been found to be related to higher suicide risk in female college students (Chang & Hirsch, 2015). College students who reported experiencing sexual violence also reported engaging in more high-risk behaviors including heavy drinking, purging, attempted suicide, and deliberate self-injury than students who had not experienced sexual violence (Stephens, 2016). Additionally, college students who reported experiencing relationship violence had lower grades (Patterson Silver Wolf et al., 2016), less confidence in their academic abilities, greater academic stress, and were less likely to meet academic commitments and responsibilities (Banyard et al., 2020). Experiencing sexual violence while in college has short and long term disruptive effects on a wide variety life aspects including relationships, academics, and life trajectories (Hodge & Privott, 2020; Stewart et al., 2020). Sexual violence is harmful to college students, as such preventing sexual violence in college communities is necessary.

Bystander Intervention in Incidents of Sexual Violence

One way to protect college students from the negative impacts of sexual violence is through bystanders intervening to help the potential victim and stop the violence. The seminal event that shed light on the concept of bystander intervention occurred in March 1964, Catherine “Kitty” Genovese was stabbed multiple times at multiple locations while walking from her car to her home in New York City (Gansberg, 1964; Rasenberger, 2004). Several days later, a New York Times article about the murder entitled, “37 Who Saw Murder Didn’t Call the Police: Apathy at

Stabbing of Queens Woman Shocks Inspector," described how dozens of people heard Ms. Genovese cry for help during the 35-minute incident, but only one person called for help after Ms. Genovese had died (Gansberg, 1964). The information from the New York Times article reached around the world (Rasenberger, 2004). Later, the narrative that dozens of people watched or heard a woman be brutally attacked and raped and chose not to get involved was found to be inaccurate (Rasenberger, 2004), but the original narrative and its level of apathy was alarming enough to lead to thousands of studies about the behavior of bystanders. Bystanders are the individuals present in a situation in which someone may need help; it has been found that a third-party bystander is present in approximately one in three sexual assaults (Planty, 2002). Bystander behavior refers to the action or lack of action a bystander engages in related to the situation and bystander intervention is the action the bystander takes. When a bystander engages in actions that reflect care and empathy to the individual in need, their actions are pro-social bystander behavior and they are acting as a pro-social bystander (Serow, 1991). In the 20 years after the Genovese murder, more academic research was done on bystander apathy than on the Holocaust (Levitt & Dubner, 2009).

Bystander behavior has been found to be impacted by the situation (e.g., Brewster & Tucker, 2016; Latane & Nida, 1981; Nicksa, 2014), the characteristics of the victim (e.g., Howard & Crano, 1974; Katz et al., 2015; Levine et al., 2002), and the characteristics of the bystander (e.g., Banyard, 2008; Huston et al., 1981; Murphy, 2014; Zavadil, 2015). While factors at play in any bystander situation have been found to be complex (e.g., Latane & Darley, 1970; Piliavin et al., 1975), bystander behavior

and decision-making in incidents of sexual violence or potential sexual violence are even more complicated (Banyard, 2015). The ambiguity between wanted and unwanted behavior, the belief that sexual behavior is private, and the potential social consequences for intervening with parties whom one has a social relationship with all create barriers for bystander intervention in situations of sexual violence (Banyard, 2015). Greater knowledge about sexual violence itself (Banyard, 2008), as well as knowing (Banyard, 2008; McMahon, 2010) or being (Murphy, 2014) a survivor of sexual assault, increases bystander intervention in sexual violence incidents. Reducing sexual assault through bystander intervention education has become a focus at many colleges around the country.

Sexual Violence Prevention Education

The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention identifies sexual violence, stalking, and intimate partner violence as serious public health problems that are preventable (Smith et al., 2015). There are many ways for colleges to address the prevention education required by federal law (Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics Act [Clery Act], 2018; Reauthorization of Violence Against Women Act [VAWA], 2013). While there are many programs and laws aimed at reducing sexual violence, the effectiveness of these initiatives varies.

In order to help colleges and universities implement sexual assault prevention programs, the organization Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education, known as NASPA, created an educational initiative called Culture of Respect (2020). Culture of Respect focuses on building the capacity of educational institutions to end

sexual violence by promoting ongoing, expansive organizational change (Korman et al., 2017). This initiative recommends that institutions of higher education go beyond basic sexual assault prevention education required by federal law to provide prevention education that is culturally specific to their students to maximize its impact (Korman et al., 2017). One of the ways Culture of Respect (NASPA, 2020) supports college prevention efforts is to compile information about research and evaluation of sexual assault prevention programs and summarize the evidence of effectiveness of the programs.

The majority of the 40 sexual assault prevention education programs reviewed by Culture of Respect were found to demonstrate participants' improvement in one or more learning objectives (NASPA, 2020). Almost a third of the prevention programs reviewed by Culture of Respect (NASPA, 2020) were found to result in improvements in one or more learning objectives based on evidence from experimental or quasi-experimental studies. A review of recent studies about the efficacy of bystander intervention programs aimed at first year college students found that bystander intervention education is effective in increasing bystander confidence but that additional study on the longer-term effects of the programs was needed (Evans, et al., 2019). While sexual assault prevention programs were meeting their learning objectives, the CDC found that only 2% of the 140 primary prevention programs they reviewed actually demonstrated a significant prevention effect (DeGue et al., 2014). Many prevention education programs focus on increasing knowledge, changing attitudes, and creating efficacy, which may not be enough to change behavior in a meaningful way and significantly reduce violence.

One aspect of prevention education required of colleges is bystander education (Clery, 2018). The goal of violence prevention efforts is a reduction is violent behavior (DeGue et al., 2014). This is often achieved through changing attitudes and/or behaviors of parties who would be involved in a violent incident or changing the environment in which the incidents would occur (Guagnano et al., 1995). One way to change an environment to reduce incidents of violence is to increase pro-social bystander responses to violent and potentially violent incidents. Bystanders are often present in incidents of college sexual violence (Banyard, 2015). More than 50 years of studies (e.g., Darley & Latane, 1968; Nicksa, 2014; Piliavin et al., 1969) have found that the factors related to whether a bystander intervenes to help in a situation and how the bystander intervenes are complex. For a bystander to intervene, they must recognize a person and/or situation as one in need of assistance, feel a responsibility to help, and recognize they can help (Latane & Darley, 1970). Bystander education programs (e.g., Alteristic, n.d.; Soteria Solutions, 2019) provide students with knowledge to recognize situations that may need intervention; establish norms related to all members of a community having a responsibility to care for others; and help students develop skills, strategies, and options to utilize when intervening.

Multiple studies (e.g., Foubert et al., 2010; Moynihan et al., 2011; Rodriguez et al., 2006) about the effect of bystander intervention programs have found that participants state a greater likelihood of intervening in potentially dangerous situations after receiving bystander education than they did before receiving the education. While bystander education programs provide students with important knowledge and increase their readiness to intervene, a multitude of factors in effect during incidents of

college sexual violence may result in bystanders choosing not to intervene (Banyard, 2015). There can be a disconnect between knowledge/beliefs and action (e.g., Ajzen et al., 2004; Sheeran, 2002; van Zomeren et al, 2018; Williams, 1968). While knowledge/beliefs do not always translate to behavior, the values of individuals and groups have been found to motivate behavior (van Zomeren et al., 2018). Greater understanding of the relationship between values and bystander behavior may help address the disconnect between knowledge/intentions and behavior to reduce college sexual assault rates.

Values and Bystander Behavior

Values have been found to influence behavior (van Zomeren et al., 2018) but the relationship between values and bystander behavior is not well studied. Values are standards that transcend specific situations and actions (Schwartz, 1992, 2006, 2012; Williams, 1968). Values are the underlying beliefs that motivate an individual to act toward desirable goals (Schwartz, 1992, 2006, 2012). Some values conflict with each other and some values complement each other (Schwartz, 1992, 2006, 2012). Individuals possess multiple values that hold different levels of importance to the individual (Schwartz, 1992, 2006, 2012). An individual's actions are guided by the relative importance of the values the individual holds (Schwartz, 1992, 2006, 2012). According to Piliavin et al. (1975), situations that require bystander intervention result in an emotional response related to multiple values held by the potential bystander. The interaction between conflicting values contributes to whether the bystander intervenes and how they choose to intervene.

Research Gap

The purpose of values, including how values relate to behavior, has been contemplated and studied for generations. There have also been decades of studies about bystander behavior, including many studies about bystander behavior in incidents of sexual violence. However, the specific relationship between student and community values and college student bystander behavior in situations of sexual violence or potential sexual violence has not been studied.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative study is to analyze the relationship between the values held by college students and student engagement as pro-social bystanders in incidents of sexual violence. More specifically, the values explored include individual student values, student perception of peer values, and student perception of institutional values. This study explored student values and bystander behavior at a small, private, religiously affiliated university on the West Coast. The specific research questions addressed were:

1) How common is bystander intervention in the study participants; are there types of intervention behavior that are more or less common than others?
2) What values do the study participants hold; are there values that are more or less common than others?
3) What do the data indicate about the relationship between values and bystander behavior?

These research questions were investigated through survey data analysis collected by the participating university in the spring of 2020. The Higher Education

Data Sharing Consortium (HEDS) Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey included questions about campus climate, sexual violence, bystander behavior and demographics. Questions about bystander behavior in the survey related to if and how the student intervened in a situation that the student witnessed and believed involved a sexual assault or could have led to a sexual assault. Examples of bystander intervention behavior asked about in the survey included: stepping in to separate the people involved in the situation, creating a distraction that caused one or more people to disengage from the situation, asking others to help diffuse the situation with the student, and telling someone in a position of authority about the situation. The participating university added three questions to the HEDS survey about student values and student perception of peer and institutional values based on the Character Education Values and Practices Inventory (CEVPI, Chen, 2005). The character values included in the CEVPI (Chen, 2005) and added to the HEDS survey by the participating university were identified through a study of college and university presidents about character development of college students (Dalton et al., 2003, as cited in Chen, 2005). Examples of character values included in the CEVPI (Chen 2005) and added to the HEDS survey include values like cooperative, fair, honest, patient, and responsible.

Pro-social Behavior and Bystander Intervention

This study explored the relationship between student and community values and student pro-social behavior, specifically as it related to bystander intervention in incidents of sexual violence. For the purpose of this study, pro-social behavior was defined as actions that reflect care and empathy (Serow, 1991) and nurture, protect, or

support (Goldstein, 1998) other individuals or groups. Pro-social behaviors contribute to the initiation and maintenance of healthy relationships (Arwood, 2011). Examples of pro-social behavior can range from the every-day, like holding a door for an individual with their hands full, to the extraordinary, like risking personal injury to stop an act of physical violence. For this study, pro-social bystander intervention was defined as actions an individual takes to end a potentially dangerous situation and/or help protect and/or help the person who is at risk of harm. Examples of bystander intervention can range from indirect intervention, such as calling for help, to direct intervention like physically breaking up a fight, or something in between like creating a distraction to deescalate a situation. For the purposes of this study, values were defined as traits or ideals associated with moral character (Chen, 2005). Values may include traits related to achievement (i.e., ambitious), related to personality (i.e., optimistic), and related to others (i.e., altruistic). This study addressed the research gap that exists about how individual student values and community values related to bystander intervention in situations of college sexual violence.

Significance

The prevalence and negative impact of sexual assault on college campuses calls for action to help protect students. Based on the number of students in college in Fall 2019 (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2019) and the prevalence of college sexual assault (Dills et al., 2016; Washington Post & Kaiser Family Foundation, 2015), it is estimated that 2,690,000 current college students will experience sexual assault while in college. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention estimates that each sexual assault results in a lifetime cost of $122,461

(Peterson, 2017). These costs are compounded for college sexual assaults given that 34% of students who experience sexual assault drop out of college (Mengo & Black, 2016). College sexual assault is a multi-billion-dollar problem we cannot afford to ignore. One million currently college students are at risk of dropping out of college as a result of sexual assault. The average cost of full-time college tuition (just over $10,000/year for in-state residents at public institutions to $37,000/year at private institutions (College Board, 2019)) makes college sexual violence a multi-billion-dollar problem we cannot afford to ignore. Gaining a better understanding of how students' values and perceptions of peer and institutional values impact student pro-social response to sexual assault in a college/university community may provide college administrators greater options in sexual assault prevention efforts.

A better understanding of the factors at play in college bystander intervention may allow prevention efforts to be tailored to the unique and interconnected communities that are college and university campuses. A single online prevention education program can cost an institution between $5,000 - $50,000 depending on the size of the school and the topics included (personal communication, Romi Hansen, Get Inclusive sales representative, July 1, 2020). Many institutions utilize a combination of online programs, in-person workshops, and internal staffing and students to provide comprehensive prevention education. With more than 4,000 degree-granting institutions of higher education in the United States (Moody, 2019), the annual cost of prevention education is in the hundreds of millions. While many prevention education options exist and have been found to change student beliefs (e.g., Cares et al., 2015; Coker et al., 2011; Foubert et al., 2010) and feelings of efficacy

(e.g., Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2011; Moynihan et al., 2011; Rodriguez et al., 2006), few have been found to actually reduce rates of violence (DeGue et al., 2014). Understanding the relationship between student perceptions of institutional values and pro-social bystander behavior may allow colleges to educate incoming students to university values in a way that reduces sexual violence rates that are at their highest at the start of the academic year.

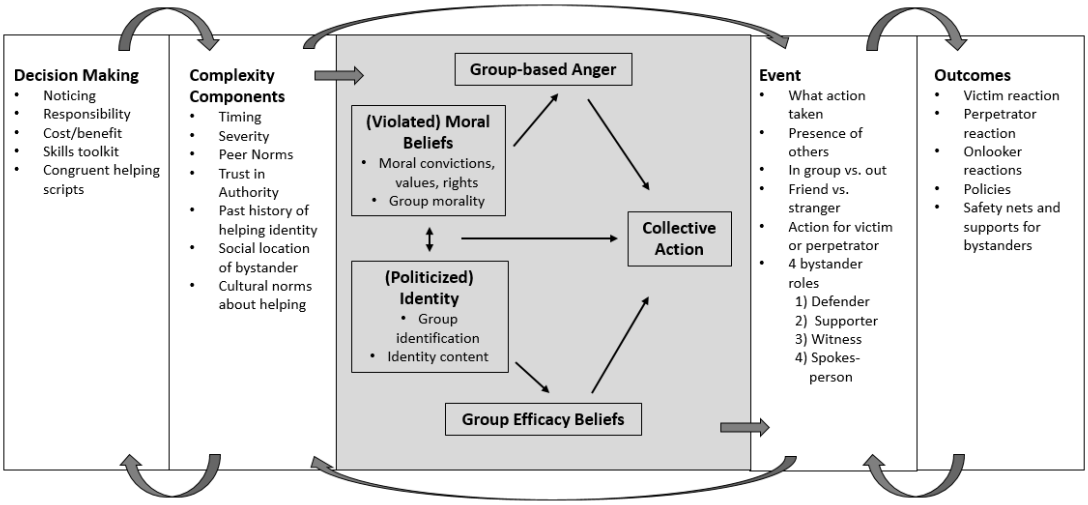
Theoretical Framework

The Action Coils Model (Banyard, 2015) and the Social Identity Model for Collective Action (SIMCA, van Zomeren et al., 2018) serve as the theoretical models for this study; collectively they explain how values relate to bystander behavior in incidents of college sexual violence. Figure 1 contains a visual representation of the Action Coils Model (Banyard, 2015), in white, combined with a visual representation of the Social Model for Collective Action (van Zomeren et al., 2018), in gray. The Action Coils model explains bystander behavior in situations of college sexual assault. The Action Coils Model describes multiple interrelated factors related to bystander behavior in situations of college sexual assault. The multitude of factors involved in decisions about bystander behavior in situations of college sexual assault before, during, and after an incident provides the theoretical framework for this study. The Action Coils Model recognizes that bystander behavior does not occur in a vacuum and that decision making, context, the event, and the outcomes of a situation affect each other in a cyclical manner (Banyard, 2015). While the Action Coils Model incorporates identity and peer and cultural norms as factors related to bystander intervention in situations of college sexual assault, it does not directly address values.

Thus, the Social Identity Model of Collective Action (SIMCA) was also used to better understand these phenomena. SIMCA describes how identity and values relate to action (van Zomeren et al, 2018). The relationship between values, specifically values being violated, and action in SIMCA is related to this study, which explored the relationship between values and behavior. Placing SIMCA within the Action Coils Model provides greater understanding about how values may serve as a factor or motivator in bystander behavior in incidents of college sexual violence. This study explored how student values and perception of peer and institutional values relate to engagement in pro-social bystander behavior in situations of college sexual violence.

Figure 1

Action Coils Model (Banyard, 2015, p. 68) combined with Social Identity Model of CollectiveAction (van Zomeren et al., 2018, p. 125)



Summary

There is a need for greater understanding of how college student and community values influence bystander behavior. This study aims to address this

knowledge gap. Many prevention programs have been found to increase knowledge, change beliefs, and increase intentions of bystander intervention, but few prevention programs have been found to reduce rates of violence. As values have been found to motivate action, a greater understanding of how student values and their perception of community values relate to bystander behavior may help address the disconnect between knowledge and behavior and contribute to the creation of safer campus communities. Chapter 2 will include a review of the literature about campus sexual violence, prevention education programs, and theories about values and behavior. Chapter 3 will provide information about the Higher Education Data Sharing Consortium's (HEDS) Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey, Character Values and Character Education Practices Inventory (CEVPI, Chen, 2005) and how data were gathered and analyzed. Chapter 4 will include the results of the quantitative study about the relationship between values and the extent to which college students engage as pro-social bystanders in incidents of sexual violence. Chapter 5 will discuss implications and limitations of the findings as well as recommendations for future research on the topic.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

In the following review of the literature, research on sexual assault prevention programs, behavior, values, and bystander intervention will be explored. The federal requirement for colleges and universities to provide sexual assault awareness and prevention education that includes bystander intervention education will also be discussed. Programs that were found to be effective in reducing sexual and relationship violence in a Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's review of 140 prevention education programs and initiatives will be highlighted. The review will also highlight research about what makes prevention education successful. There will also be information about bystander intervention, including when and why people intervene in situations to help others or fail to intervene and theories and factors that have been found to impact bystander intervention in a variety of situations. The review will identify specific bystander intervention programs for college students that are supported by research. Finally, the role of values on behavior will be included. Specific attention will be paid to how values related to bystander behavior and bystander behavior in situations of college sexual violence.

Federal Requirements for Sexual Assault Prevention Education at Colleges

Federal statutes require colleges to provide sexual assault prevention education. With college being a time when one in five women and one in 20 men experience sexual assault (Dills et al., 2016; Washington Post & Kaiser Family

Foundation, 2015) and sexual assault having a negative impact on college student wellness and success (e.g., Bowler, 2018; Chang & Hirsch, 2015; Mellins et al., 2018; Patterson Silver Wolf et al., 2016; Stephens, 2016), it is not surprising that there are federal statutes that require institutions of higher education to engage in sexual assault prevention education. Violence Against Women Act (VAWA) Reauthorization of 2013, which incorporated the 2013 Campus Sexual Violence Elimination (Campus SaVE) Act, is an amendment to the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistics (Clery) Act and requires colleges to provide sexual violence prevention education to all students that includes bystander education, risk reduction, and consent education. This law also requires colleges and universities to provide sexual assault prevention and awareness education to incoming students and staff. The Clery Act (2018) requires additional ongoing prevention and awareness education. The majority of colleges and universities have implemented sexual assault prevention programs (Korman et al., 2017; Richards, 2016).

This prevention education must occur both as individuals are entering the college community and on an ongoing basis (Clery Act, 2018). Many workshops, presentations, and online modules have been created to meet the prevention education needs of colleges and universities. Culture of Respect, an initiative by the organization Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education (NASPA), has curated a list sexual assault prevention programs geared toward colleges and universities based on sound theory and previous research to help higher education administrators choose the prevention education program(s) that best meet the needs of their community (NASPA, 2020). While there are dozens of research-based prevention education

programs geared for college and university communities, there is limited research on the effectiveness of these programs. Of the 40 prevention education programs in Culture of Respect's Prevention Programming Matrix, only 13 of them are supported by experimental or quasi-experimental studies published in a peer reviewed publication that demonstrate that participants showed improvement in at least one learning objective, compared to a control group of students who did not participate in the training program (NASPA, 2020). Table 1 contains information about the program format, dosage, and content information for the prevention education programs identified as being supported by evidence by Culture of Respect.

Of the 11 prevention education programs that Culture of Respect identified as supported by evidence that included the topic of bystander education (see Table 1), three pairs of programs are related to each other: 1) Bringing in the Bystander, a workshop, and Know Your Power, a marketing campaign, are both products from Soteria Solutions; 2) The Men's Program and the Women's Program are both workshop products of One in Four geared for different populations; and 3) Real Consent is an online program based on Alan Berkowitz's Men's Workshop. Per the Campus SaVE Act (2013) and Clery Act (2018), the prevention education provided to college and university communities must include the topics of bystander intervention and risk reduction. In addition to risk reduction and bystander intervention some sexual assault prevention education programming also addresses the underlying cultural norms and inequities that can result in victimization. The contents, format, and effectiveness of these various prevention programs varies.

Table 1

Sexual Assault Prevention Education Programs Supported by Evidence (NASPA, 2020)

Program Name	Program Format				Dosage	Bystander Intervention Content
	Online Course	In-person Workshop	Presentation	Marketing Campaign		
Bringing in the Bystander		X			One or three 90-minute sessions	X
Enhanced Access, Acknowledge, Act (EAAA) Sexual Assault Resistance		X			Four 3-hour sessions	
Green Dot		X		X	Up to four sessions, plus awareness events	X
InterACT		X			One performance	X
Know Your Power				X	Varies	X
Men's Workshop		X			One 90-minute session followed by one 60-minute session (4 months later)	X
The Men's Program		X	X		One session	X
Media Aware	X				Five modules that take up to 2-hours	
One Act		X			One 4-hour session	X
Real Consent	X				Six 30-minute modules	X
SCREAM Theatre and SCREAM Athletes		X	X		One performance and debrief	X
Sex Signals			X		One 60-minute performance	X
The Women's Program		X			One session	X

Effectiveness of Prevention Programs

While there are many attempts to reduce sexual and relationship violence through prevention education programs, the effectiveness of these programs varies. A Centers for Disease Control and Prevention review of 140 primary prevention programs for sexual violence found only three programs that demonstrated a significant preventative effect (DeGue et al., 2014). The majority of the sexual assault prevention programs evaluated by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention focused on increasing knowledge and changing attitudes, two outcomes which have not shown evidence of effectiveness on reducing sexually violent behavior. Additionally, the majority (60%) of the sexual assault prevention programs evaluated by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention were one-session interventions with an average length of 68 minutes. Also, the majority of studies assessing the effectiveness of sexual assault prevention programs utilizing a pretest/posttest measured outcomes immediately after the intervention and not additionally at a later time. While the sexual assault prevention programs analyzed by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention were likely to meet the legal requirement for institutions of higher education to provide sexual assault prevention education, the majority do not have evidence that indicates that they actually prevent sexual violence from occurring (DeGue et al., 2014).

The three programs that the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention found to have evidence supporting their effectiveness in sexual violence prevention included two healthy relationship programs (Safe Dates and Shifting Boundaries) aimed at middle and high school students and grants distributed by the U.S. Department of

Justice to support the Violence Against Women Act [VAWA] of 1994 (DeGue et al., 2014). Safe Dates is a 10-session dating violence prevention program for middle and high school students that also incorporates a 45-minute student play and a poster contest (DeGue et al., 2014). Students who received the Safe Dates program were significantly less likely to be victims (p = .01) or perpetrators (p = .04) of self-reported sexual violence involving a dating partner four years after experiencing the Safe Dates program, compared to the control group (Foshee et al., 2004). The second healthy relationships program, Shifting Boundaries is a six-session dating violence prevention program involving a classroom-based curriculum and a building-level intervention (DeGue et al., 2014). The building level intervention, but not the classroom-based curriculum alone, was found to be effective in reducing self-reported victimization and perpetration of sexual harassment and peer sexual violence and sexual violence victimization by a dating partner (Taylor et al., 2013). Safe Dates and Shifting Boundaries were the two prevention education programs the CDC found to reduce rates of violence, additionally VAWA related grants were found to reduce rates of violence (DeGue, 2014).

The VAWA funded research, education and awareness programs, prevention activities, and victim services, in addition to increasing the prosecution and penalties associated with violence against women, including sexual assault. VAWA related grant funding for criminal justice related activities was associated with a 0.07% annual reduction in rapes reported to the police and a reduction in aggravated assault (Boba & Lilley, 2009). VAWA grants funded a variety of types of programs for criminal justice purposes, including increasing arrests and prosecution (Boba & Lilley, 2009). It

appears that sexual violence prevention education is most effective when provided earlier than college, over a longer period of time than one 68-minute session, and when it incorporates multiple teaching methods (DeGue et al., 2014).

An analysis of prevention programs found that there are nine principles that fall into three broad categories, associated with an effective prevention program (Nation et al., 2003). Program characteristics, matching programs to their target population, and the implementation and evaluation of the programs were broadly defined as relevant to the effectiveness of the prevention program. Principles related to program characteristics associated with effective prevention programs include that programs are; (a) comprehensive, (b) include various teaching methods, (c) provide sufficient dosage, (d) are theory driven, and (e) provide opportunities for positive relationships. Principles related to matching the program to the target group included that the program was appropriately timed and socio-culturally relevant. Principles associated with program implementation and evaluation included that programs included outcome evaluation and utilized well trained staff (Nation et al., 2003). The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention hypothesized that the limited number of programs found to be effective at preventing violence found in their rigorous analysis may be the result of a disconnect between the prevention programs and the principles of effective prevention programs identified by Nation and his colleagues (2003) and/or the focus of many programs on gaining knowledge and changing attitudes (DeGue et al., 2014). As the CDC review highlighted, changing behavior is difficult.

Colleges are required to provide sexual violence prevention education to address the prevalence and negative impact of college sexual violence. The timing and

contents of this training has been mandated by federal statute. While the timing and contents of these education programs are set, the effectiveness of prevention education programs varies. The majority of prevention education programs are based in sound theory and have been found to meet learning objectives, change student attitudes and beliefs, and increase student willingness to engage in pro-social behavior. Unfortunately, while many prevention education programs are meeting their objectives and demonstrating positive changes in participants, few programs have been found to reduce rates of violence.

Green Dot, Etc.

One of the ways the participating university provides prevention education to its students is through the Green Dot Etc. bystander education program. The Culture of Respect has identified that Green Dot's effectiveness is supported by evidence (NASPA, 2020). Green Dot (Alteristic, n.d.) is an in-person workshop and marketing campaign created by Dorothy Edwards while serving as the Violence Intervention and Prevention Director at the University of Kentucky (Alteristic, n.d.; NASPA, 2020). Green Dot utilizes multiple methods including speeches from a certified instructor, interactive activities, and social marketing techniques to increase social awareness and mainstream social acceptance for intervention in communities (NASPA, 2020). Green Dot is based on counteracting Rogers' (1983) social diffusion theory, which explains why the more people that are present as bystanders, the less likely they are to intervene (NASPA, 2020). Green Dot attempts to train influential students in the hope that they will be persuasive in changing social paradigms and influence the bystander behavior of others (NASPA, 2020). The Green Dot program consists of four main

parts; (1) the opening speech to inspire buy-in and explain the general strategy, (2) bystander trainings that include video and role-play exercises and other activities to practice proactive intervention skills, (3) social marketing strategies to increase awareness and social acceptance of the language and principles of Green Dot, and (4) mobilizing events to generate a lot of proactive behaviors and establish clear campus norms that violence will not be tolerated and everyone is expected to do their part to keep the community safe (NASPA, 2020). According to Culture of Respect (NASPA, 2020), Green Dot has been implemented on over 100 college campuses.

Multiple studies have been done assessing the effectiveness of Green Dot. In one study (Coker et al., 2011) of University of Kentucky students, it was found that students who participated in the Green Dot training program had a significantly lower acceptance for rape myths and self-reported engaging in significantly more bystander behaviors than students who did not attend Green Dot training. Additionally, students who attended Green Dot training or heard a Green Dot speech reported more observed and active bystander behaviors than students who attended neither Green Dot program (Coker et al., 2011). In two later studies (Coker et al., 2015, 2016) Green Dot's impact on campus-wide violence rates were compared at a school with a Green Dot program and two similar schools without a bystander intervention program. Violence victimization rates at the college with Green Dot were significantly lower than at the other two schools without bystander intervention programs (Coker et al., 2015) this trend held up over a four-year period (Coker et al., 2016). Additionally, violence perpetration rates were lower among male students attending the campus with a Green Dot program compared to male students at the schools without a bystander

intervention program (Coker et al., 2015), this finding held up over four years (Coker et al., 2016). The multi-campus studies (Coker et al., 2015, 2016) suggest that the Green Dot program impacts the campus community and not simply those students who attend the program.

Changing Behavior

In order to reduce rates of violence, behavioral change must occur. Social science explores behavior through two different lenses; social and cognitive psychologists study behavior as a function of internal processes, while economists and applied behavioral analysts study behavior as a function of external factors (Guagnano et al., 1995). Those who emphasize internal processes focus on education and persuasion to change behavior and those who focus on external factors focus on regulations and external motivations like monetary incentives/penalties to change behavior (Guagnano et al., 1995). Alternatively, some believe that rather than internal processes or external factors shaping behavior that behavior shapes people's internal processes (Bem, 1972). Colleges and universities use a combination of education, policies, and external factors like staffing and programming to influence student behavior. For example, to address student alcohol use, many colleges provide prevention education related to alcohol use, have policies related to alcohol use, utilize staff to monitor student behavior and address misconduct, and provide alcohol-free social opportunities.

Two theories about how human behavior is impacted by internal and external factors are described below.

Norm Activation Model

The Schwartz norm-activation model (1977) incorporates a combination of internal and external factors that influence behavior. The norm activation model explains altruistic behavior and the impact of pride and guilt in behavior. Schwartz (1977) suggests that in order for someone to act altruistically, they must first be aware of the negative consequences for others and recognize their responsibility to prevent the potential harm; people who recognize potential harm and their responsibility to help, experience a sense of obligation to act to prevent harm.

A – B – C Model

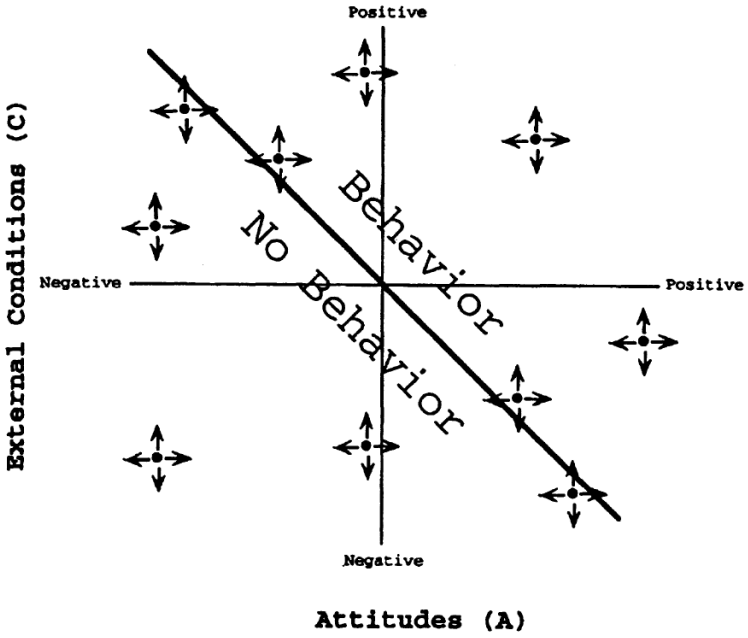
A simplified version of the Schwartz norm activation model suggests that behavior (B) is related to attitude (A) and associated with external conditions (C) (Guagnano et al., 1995). The model assumes a range of attitudes and conditions within a population for any behavior and the prevalence of the behavior reflect those distributions. The Norm Activation Model (Schwartz, 1977) predicts that behaviors that are easier, associated with positive conditions, and/or favored by attitudes will be more common than those behaviors that are more challenging or expensive, are associated with negative conditions, and/or are strongly opposed will be rare (Guagnano et al., 1995).

Guagnano et al. (1995) discovered that the effect of attitude and condition on behavior are relative to each other. The success of strategies to change behavior depend on the magnitude of the sum of the absolute values of A and C, see Figure 2. If the sum of A and C is small, then a small change in either attitude or conditions may result in behavior change, but if the sum of A and C is large, then a substantial change

in either attitude of conditions may not be enough to change behavior. The success of efforts to change behavior may be more related to the relative distribution of attitudes and conditions in the population than the size of the intervention (Guagnano et al., 1995).

Figure 2

A-B-C Model (Guagnano et al., 1995, p. 703)



Behavior is influenced by multiple factors. Economists believe behavior is a function of external conditions, and social and cognitive psychologists believe behavior is a function of internal processes (Guagnano et al., 1995). Both the Norm Activation Model (Schwartz, 1977) and the A-B-C Model (Guagnano et al., 1995) explain behavior with a combination of external conditions and internal feelings and processes. The Norm Activation Model (Schwartz, 1977) predicts that behaviors that are associated with positive conditions, and favorable attitudes will be more common

than those associated with more challenging conditions or that people are strongly opposed to; i.e. people are more likely to do things they enjoy or are positively perceived by others. Guagnano et al. (1995) argue that a small change in either attitude or condition can result in a behavior change when the attitudes and/or conditions are small but significant changes in either attitude or behavior or condition may not be enough to change behavior when the conditions and/or attitudes are great; i.e. the more extreme a situation or attitude is, the harder it is to create a behavioral change associated with it.

Identity

An individuals' identity, like their attitude or the situation they are in, affects their behavior. Identity has been found to be associated with a wide range of human behaviors including doling out rewards and punishments, academic performance, and happiness (Akerlof & Kranton, 2010). Multiple theories related to identity were developed in the second half of the twentieth century. These include, Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), Identity Theory (i.e. Burke, 1980; Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 2000), and Place Identity Theory (Proshansky et al., 1983). The foundation of identity theories can be traced back to the work of George Herbert Mead (1934), which describes how society shapes the individual, which shapes social behavior through cultural assimilation and the acceptance of commonly shared beliefs, rules, values, and expectations. Modern identity theory began with questions related to which identities a person holds are most prominent and how and why salience may change over time (Stryker, 1968).

Social identity theory, identity theory, and place identity theory are modern identity theories. In social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) a person's identity is based on their group membership and the psychological significance of in-group and out-group characterizations. People who identify with a particular group, internalize the norms of the group and are more likely to act in accordance with those norms. In Social Identity Theory, identity and behavior are linked through shared meaning; identities that are prominent, or salient, are more likely to predict behavior when the meaning of the behavior corresponds with the meaning of the individual identity. In identity theory (Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 2000), an individual's identity is tied to their role in society and their performance of the role. The more people an individual is tied to as a result of an identity and the stronger those ties are, the more likely that the identity will be activated in a situation (Stryker, 1968, 1980). A person may act without regard to their role identities in order to maintain their personal identities when there is a conflict between the meanings and expectations related to their role and the meanings associated with their personal identities (Stets, 1995). In Identity Theory, people have as many identities as they have people they interact with, these identities are organized hierarchically based on the individual's commitment to the role or relationships that require that identity (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Identities have been found to only predict behavior when the meaning of the identity correspond to the meaning of the behavior (Burke & Reitzes, 1981). While Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and Identity Theory (Stryker & Burke, 2000) focus on an individual's relationship to others, Place Identity Theory (Proshansky et al., 1983) focuses on how an individual conceptualizes the physical

space in which they inhabit and where their relationships with others occur. Unlike, Social Identity Theory and Identity Theory which see identity as somewhat fixed with the salient identity being determined by hierarchy and context, Place Identity Theory recognizes that an individual's identity is ever changing. In all these theories about identity, an individual can have multiple identities based on their multiple group associations, multiple roles, or multiple places.

More recently (i.e. Stets & Burke, 2000; Udall et al., 2020) the similarities between various theories about identity have been of greater focus than their differences which are seen more as different emphases. Udall and colleagues (2020) recently brought Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), Social Identity Theory (Stryker & Burke, 2000), and Place Identity Theory (Proshansky et al., 1983) together into a Universal Identity Approach. In the Universal Identity Approach, identity is defined on three levels; (a) individually-focused identity (Stryker & Burke, 2000), (b) group-focused identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), and (c) place-focused identity (Proshansky et al., 1983). This multi-faceted view of identity provides a more complex and nuanced understanding of identity and how it relates to behavior. Identity is one factor related to behavior, identities include values.

Values

Like attitudes and identity, values can also affect behavior. Values, morals, norms, and character are concepts related to how individuals and groups perceive situations, make decisions, and act. Values are standards of desirability that are independent of specific situations (Williams, 1968). Morals are the system of beliefs through which people determine right and wrong (Gilligan, 1977; Kohlberg & Hersh,

1977). Norms are what an individual should or should not do in a particular situation based on the circumstances of the situation (Williams, 1968). Character consists of "knowing the good, desiring the good, and doing the good" (Lickona, 1998, p. 79).

Values Theories

The most prevalent theory about values and a theory explaining how values motivate action will be described in detail below. The Theory of Values (Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987) describes values in a universal manner. The Social Identity Model for Collective Action (SIMCA, van Zomeren et al., 2008, 2012) provides a mechanism for values leading to action which is relevant to this study.

Theory of Values. The Theory of Values identified universal values common across cultures, the relationship between universal values, and described the primary features of values. Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) created a theory of universal values that views values as cognitive representations of the universal requirements of "(a) biological needs, (b) interactional requirements for interpersonal coordination, and (c) societal demands for group welfare and survival" (p. 550). Their theory contained eight motivational values domains - enjoyment, security, social power, achievement, self-direction, pro-social, restrictive conformity, and maturity. The motivational domains were mapped according to the interests they serve, individualistic or collectivist, and the type of goal they referred to, terminal or instrumental (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987).

Schwartz (1992) refined the theory of universal values (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987) after testing it with hundreds of people from 20 countries, including some with individualistic cultures and some with collectivist cultures. It was found "that people

in a large number of cultures implicitly distinguish 10 types of values when assessing the importance of specific values as guiding principles in their lives" (p. 37) and that there was no evidence of additional, universal, motivational types of values missing from the theory. Some values, like obedience and independence, conflict with each other, while others, like obedience and security, are compatible with each other.

In addition to identifying universal values and their relationship to each other, Schwartz's (1992, 2006) value theory also includes six primary features of values:

1) Values are beliefs linked to emotion. People become emotionally aroused when their values are activated.
2) Values motivate action toward desirable goals.
3) Values transcend specific situations and actions.
4) Values are used to evaluate situations, actions, people, and events.
5) Values are ordered by importance relative to each other. An individual's values and their relative ranking characterize them.
6) The relative importance of multiple values guide action. Any action or behavior has implications for multiple values, the interaction between conflicting values guides attitude and behavior (Schwartz, 2012).

Schwartz's Theory of Values (1992) and subsequent work (i.e. 2012), in which he identified universal values, their relationships and interactions, and key characteristics of values provides a foundation for other research and theories on values, including the Social Identity Model of Collective Action (van Zomeren et al., 2008, 2012).

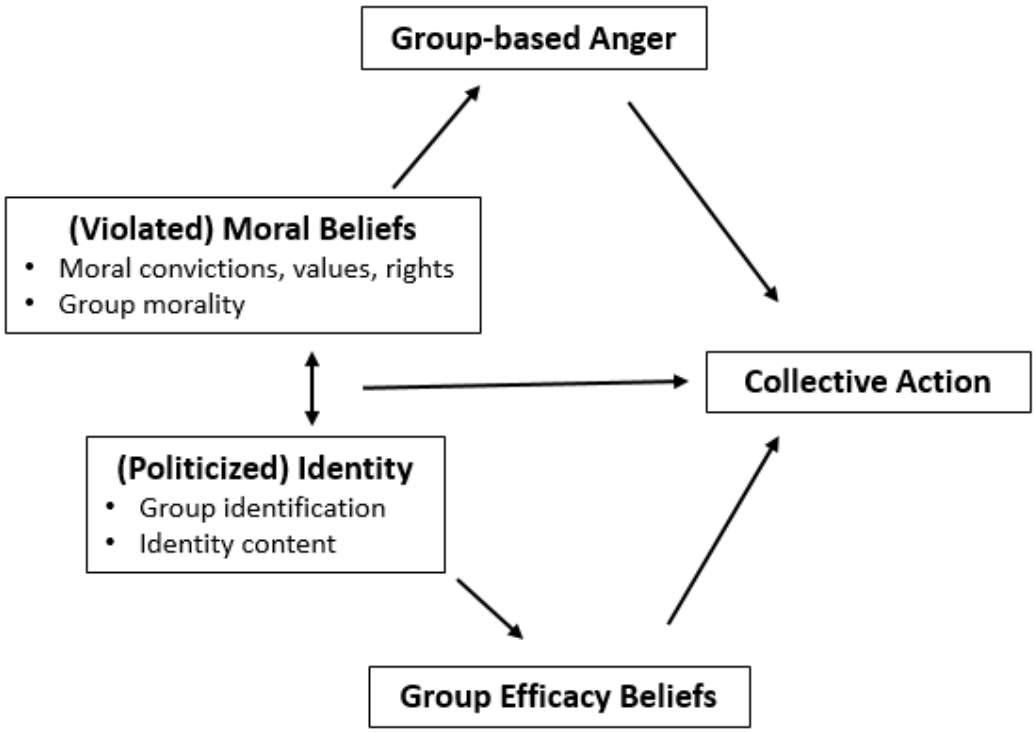
Social Identity Model of Collective Action. Van Zomeren et al. (2008, 2012) developed the social identity model of collective action (SIMCA) to explain how perceived injustice, efficacy beliefs, and identity motivate people to participate in social protests. It has been found that collective action is more likely when people experience group-based deprivation than when they experience individual-based deprivation (van Zomeren et al., 2008). People were also more likely to engage in collective action when experienced deprivation is considered unjust. After testing the SIMCA theory with data from over 3,000 individuals, it was found that perceived injustice, efficacy, and identity provide equal motivation for collective action and that the SIMCA model can predict collective action. SIMCA has been tested on a variety of groups with different identities and values. The relationship between identity/values and action in SIMCA has been found to exist across a range of groups and situations including in different countries and cultures around the world (van Zomeren, 2019), among individuals with different political ideologies (Choma et al., 2019), and in individuals experiencing trauma (Muldoon et al., 2020).

After further study, van Zomeren et al. (2018) concluded that in addition to perceived injustice, efficacy beliefs, and identity, moral beliefs are also a factor in motivation to engage in collective action. An individual's or group's values and moral convictions contribute to their identity and influence their behavior. When an individual's moral beliefs were violated, they were motivated to engage in collective actions (see Figure 3). Who an individual group is (identity) was closely related to what they will not stand for (values). Individuals and groups are motivated to protect and defend their values to defend who they are. People were less likely to engage in

action related to an abstract value and were more motivated to engage in action related to the contextual trigger of a value not being met. It was found “the perceived violation of moral believes instigates the motivation to protect these beliefs, and thus transform the more abstract value and rights into a more concrete, situation specific behavioral manifestation” (van Zomeren et al., 2018, p. 139).

Figure 3

SIMCA Including Moral Beliefs (van Zomeren et al., 2018, p. 125)



Summary of Values. Values, morals, norms, and character are interrelated concepts that relate to perception, decision making, and behavior. The most prevalent theory about values is the Theory of Values (Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987) in which globally universal values have been identified and arranged based on their relationship to each other. Values with similar motivations support each other while values with opposing motivations are in conflict (Schwartz, 1992). The Theory of Values also identifies primary features of values that include values transcending specific situations, being related to emotions, goals, and behavior, and having a hierarchy of importance (Schwartz, 1992, 2006). The Social Identity Model for

Collective Action (SIMCA) describes how a combination of perceived injustice, sense of efficacy, identity and values motivates action (van Zomeren et al., 2008, 2012, 2018). Similar to how SIMCA (van Zomeren, 2018) describes collective action, bystander intervention theories describe action.

Bystander Intervention

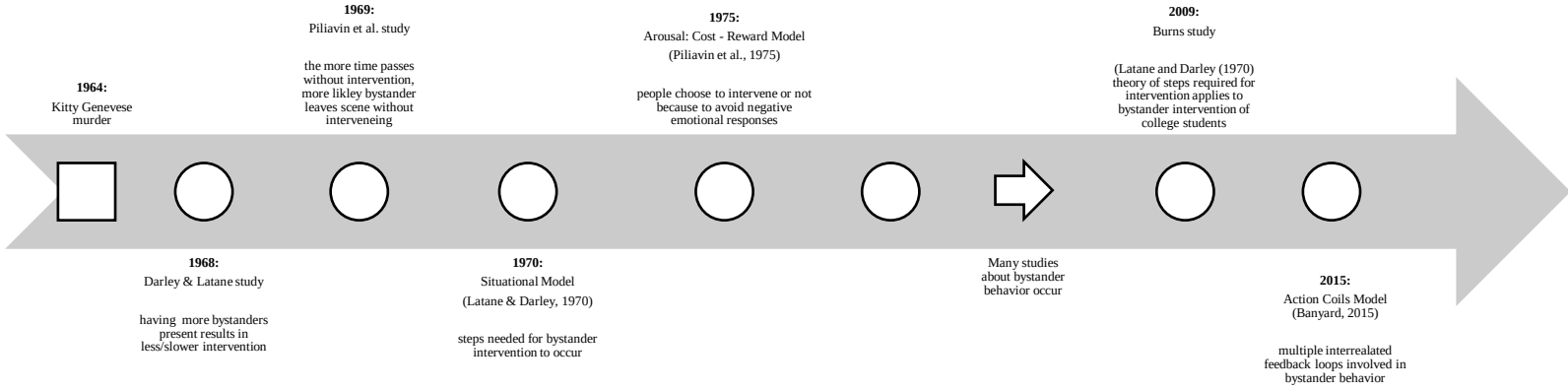
Bystander behavior has been well studied in the past 50 years. Four different theories will be used as lenses for this work, they will each be described in-depth below. Studies have found how various factors related to bystander behavior; situational factors, victim factors, and bystander factors that increase bystander behavior will be described below. Finally, educational programs to prepare college students to intervene as pro-social bystanders will be described below.

The concerns related to bystanders not intervening to help Kitty Genovese, who died in an attack in New York City in 1964, led to many studies that helped explain bystander behavior, A timeline of relevant studies and theories about bystander behavior are highlighted in Figure 4. The foundational study on bystander intervention occurred by Darley and Latane (1968) in an experiment on 59 undergraduate students at New York University in which the effect of group size, group make-up, and gender on a bystander's speed and willingness to intervene was explored. The experiment placed subjects in a room alone where they could hear audio of what they believed were other subjects in other rooms that they could not see. The subjects believed they were participating in a discussion, via audio, with one or more other unseen college students in other rooms, about difficulties college students face when attending college in urban environments. During the experiment, the subject

heard what they believed to be another subject having a medical emergency in another room and the researchers measured how long it took the subject to leave their room and seek help. Darley and Latane (1968) did not find there to be significant effects on someone's likeliness to intervene based on the group make-up of the other bystanders, the gender of the subject, or the gender of the victim, but they did find that group size had a significant effect on intervention. Most (85%) of the subjects who believed they were the only person who heard the victim in distress sought help, while only 31% of the subjects who believed that four other participants also heard the victim in distress sought help. Darley and Latane (1968) hypothesized that the effect was caused by one or more of the following; (a) the pressure to intervene being spread amongst the group with less pressure on any one person, (b) the potential blame for not intervening being spread amongst the group with less blame on any one person, and/or (c) the belief that someone else in the group was already taking action and therefore additional action was not needed. The chilling effect the larger number of bystanders had on bystander intervention that Darley and Latane (1968) found came to be known as the bystander effect, and their research has been cited almost 4,000 times according to Google Scholar.

Figure 4

Timeline of Bystander Intervention Theories and Related Studies



After the Darley and Latane (1968) study, another team of researchers explored helping behavior with an experiment on unsuspecting participants in a subway train (Piliavin et al., 1969). On a moving subway train between stops, an actor who either appeared drunk or ill fell to the ground of the train car and researchers observed the helping behavior of other train car passengers (Piliavin et al., 1969). Researchers found that a person who appeared ill was more likely to receive help than one who appeared drunk, that the race of the parties involved did not seem to matter with the exception that when the person in need of help appeared to be drunk, they were more likely to be helped by someone of their own race, and that the longer the emergency continued without someone helping, the more likely someone was to remove themselves from the situation without helping (Piliavin et al., 1969). Unlike in the Darley and Latane (1968) study, a decrease in the speed of a bystander response was not found when more people were present (Piliavin et al., 1969).

Bystander Behavior Theories

Multiple theories have been created to explain bystander behavior. Four different theories relate to this study, they will each be described in-depth below.

Situational Model. Subsequently, Darley and Latane expanded their work in 1968 to create the situational model of bystander intervention (Latane & Darley, 1970). This model describes the steps that need to occur before someone will intervene in a situation as a bystander (Latane & Darley, 1970). A bystander must first notice the situation, recognize that it is one in which intervention is needed, choose to take responsibility for the intervention, decide how to help, and then finally intervene. Situational barriers at any of the steps will stop the bystander intervention process

resulting in no intervention by the bystander. Similar to their earlier work (Darley & Latane, 1968), Latane and Darley (1970) indicated that the larger the group present, the greater the social costs of making an inappropriate response to a situation and the less likely a bystander is to intervene. After Latane and Darley's model, additional models were proposed to describe bystander behavior.

Arousal: Cost – Reward Model. Other researchers continued to study bystander behavior and factors related to it. Piliavin et al. (1969; 1975) developed a model to explain their observations in which observing an emergency creates an emotional response in the bystander. The more the bystander can empathize with the victim, the closer the bystander is to the emergency, and the longer the state of emergency continues without intervention of a helper, the greater the emotional response of the bystander was (Piliavin et al., 1969, 1975). The action of the bystander will be determined based on an assessment of the costs associated with helping, the costs associated with not helping, the rewards associated with helping, and the rewards associated with not helping (Piliavin et al., 1969, 1975). In this model, the major motivation for helping is the bystander's desire to avoid an unpleasant emotional state either caused by the situation and/or not helping (Piliavin et al., 1969, 1975).

Situational Model and College Sexual Assault Prevention. Early research on bystander behavior continues to be relevant today. Almost 40 years after Latane and Darley (1970) published their situational model for bystander intervention, it was tested as a model for sexual assault prevention with undergraduate college students (Burn, 2009). Almost 600 primarily White undergraduate men and women from 60 academic majors at a California university were given anonymous surveys containing

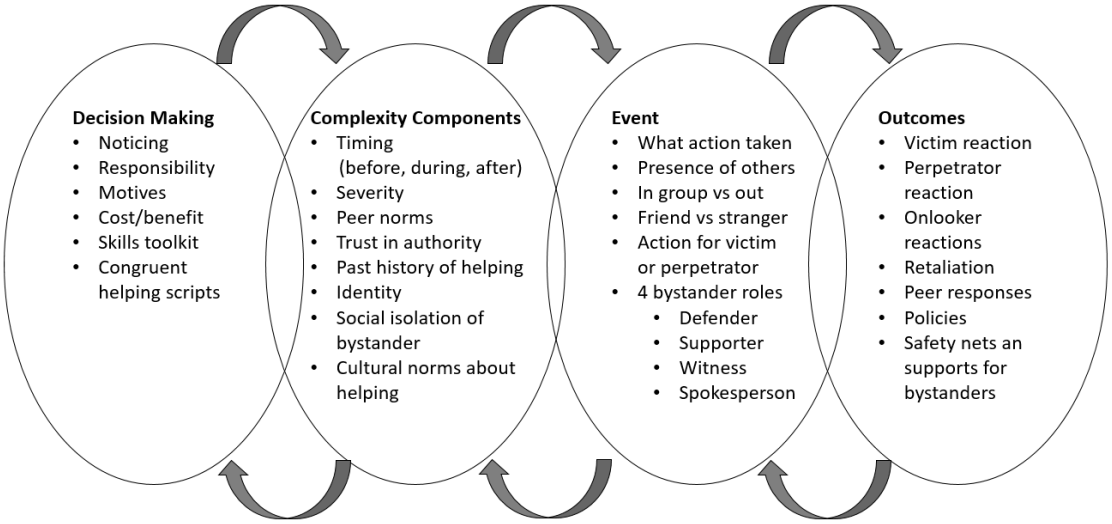
Likert scale items based on the situational model. Burn's findings suggested that Latane and Darley's (1970) five barrier situational model of bystander intervention was applicable to sexual assault bystander intervention. It was found that with the exception of failure to intervene due to a skills deficit, men faced greater barriers for intervention than women. The greatest barrier for intervention for both men and women was failing to notice that situation was in need of intervention followed by a skills deficit. Fear of social consequences related to intervening presented the smallest barrier to intervention. Burn found that knowing the potential victim or perpetrator positively influenced college student intervention with people being most likely to intervene if an involved party was a friend. While both men and women indicated that they would be less likely to intervene if the potential victim had engaged in behavior that increased the victim's risk for sexual assault, male bystanders were less likely to intervene than female bystanders. Burn is one of many researchers who have studied bystander behavior in situations of college sexual violence.

Action Coils Model. Victoria Banyard (2015), a prolific researcher on bystander behavior in situations of sexual violence, created a theory about bystander behavior that recognizes that bystander behavior does not occur in a vacuum. This model goes beyond the bystander, victim, and situation to consider contexts, relationships, nature and perception of action, and how factors affects each other in a cyclical manner. Banyard's model is influenced by Chaudoir and Fisher's (2010) research about how people choose to disclose or conceal a stigmatized identity and the Haddon Matrix model (Haddon, 1980) from public health on prevention, which includes interventions related to multiple factors to reduce injury before, during, and

after an incident. Banyard's Action Coils Model about bystander behavior (see Figure 5) includes decision making, complexity components, the event, and the outcomes in a manner where each area/coil is involved in a feedback loop where it affects those that come before and after it (Banyard, 2015). The first coil contains factors related to decision making, similar to those in the Latane and Darley model (1970) used in much bystander research. The first loop involves factors related to decision making including, who the bystander is, motivations for why people help, and the bystander noticing the situation and recognizing it as one that requires assistance. The second coil involves contextual variables of the situation including the culture and context in which the incident is occurring. The second coil also recognizes that helping behavior can occur before, during, and after an incident. The third coil involves the incident itself; who's present, what are the relationships between parties, the action taken, and recognizes that there are multiple roles from which a bystander can help. The fourth coil involves the direct and indirect outcomes of the bystander action in the short and longer term.

Figure 5

Bystander Action Coils Model (Banyard, 2015, p. 68)



In Banyard's (2015) model, the actions of bystanders are seen as multifaceted and related to who the parties involved are, the context of the incident, and how action will impact the parties beyond the incident. In the Action Coil Model, bystander behavior and its results in one incident influences decision making and action in future incidents. Many bystander studies (e.g., Darley & Latane, 1968; Piliavin 1969, 1975) have explored the actions of bystanders in isolated events involving strangers. While these bystander studies provide meaningful insight into helping behavior, they do not address the complexities result from acting or not acting when the situation may cause longer term impacts for the people and relationships involved. Anecdotally, relationships and social consequences have an impact on bystander behavior (Orenstein, 2020). Ornstein discusses the conflict young men feel when choosing whether to confront disrespectful language and behavior in their peer group. One young man said, "I don't want to have to choose between my own dignity [addressing

his peers' disrespectful language] and my relationships with others [not losing social relationships and/or social capital due to addressing his peers' disrespectful language]" (p. 9).

Factors Related to Bystander Intervention

In the more than 50 years since the Darley and Latane (1968) study, the behavior of bystanders continues to be of interest to researchers. In the last decade alone, more than 100 doctoral dissertations and master's theses about the combined subjects of bystander and psychology have been published in ProQuest with the greatest number, 22, being from 2016. The majority (63 out of 123) of these studies focus on college students and/or college campus. Many of these studies (e.g., Bollinger, 2019; Johnson, 2016; McGonigal, 2016; Moore, 2018; Peterson, 2014) investigate the effectiveness of various educational campaigns related to bystander intervention and/or reducing sexual or gender-related violence. Some study how various traits like gender (e.g., Karampurwala, 2015; Kaya, 2019; Koon, 2013; Nicksa, 2011; Rice, 2017), race and ethnicity (e.g., Forkosh, 2013; Heggen, 2017), group affiliation (e.g., Bluth, 2014; Edmiston, 2017; Feldwisch, 2017; Hill, 2014; Toy, 2016), or attitudes (e.g., Garcia-Ramirez, 2016; Harb, 2014; Johnson-Quay, 2015; Leonard, 2017; Woodbrown, 2018) impact action, anticipated behaviors, learning, and/or beliefs related to bystander intervention. Others specifically explore bystander behavior in incidents of college student sexual or gender-based violence (e.g., Beck, 2018; Jin, 2017; Murphy, 2014; Otanez, 2018; Zavadil, 2015). Through these many studies, much has been learned about bystander behavior.

In the many studies conducted on bystander behaviors, it has become apparent that the factors involved in whether, and how, a bystander intervenes in a situation are varied and multifaceted. The simple state that Darley and Latane (1968) described, in which more people being present resulted in less bystander intervention, is more complex than it originally appeared. For instance, in studies from the 2000s that are still relevant, bystander group membership's effect on bystander behavior were explored. It has been found that fellow bystanders are only influential to each other when they are "in-group" members compared to "out-group" members (Levine et al., 2002). Additionally, increasing the number of out-group bystanders resulted in more intervention from men but less intervention from women (Levine & Crowther, 2008). Also, increasing group size was found to inhibit bystander intervention only when the people in the bystander group were strangers but when the bystanders were friends, a greater number of bystanders increased helping behavior (Levine & Crowther, 2008). Finally, increasing the group size with female bystanders increased helping behavior for a female victim (Levine & Crowther, 2008). Additional factors' effect on bystander intervention are discussed below.

Situational Variables. It has been found that the situation in which bystanders find themselves can influence their intervention. Researchers' understanding of bystander behavior continues to build on existing research for a more nuanced understanding of behavior. In a meta-analysis of bystander research, it was determined that helping behavior by bystanders was reduced when the number of bystanders increased or the situation was ambiguous (Latané & Nida, 1981). The bystander effect increased as bystanders had greater opportunity to communicate with each other.

Additionally, the bystander effect has been found to be stronger in cities than rural areas (Latané & Nida, 1981). In a subsequent meta-analysis of bystander research between 1981 and 2010, it was found that the bystander effect existed in virtual environments and not just physical ones (Fischer et al., 2011). The bystander effect has been found to be less pronounced and people more likely to intervene, regardless of the presence of others, in higher danger situations (Fischer et al., 2011). College students reported being less likely to actively intervene in a situation when they encountered the situation while running late for class (Brewster & Tucker, 2016). Facilitators to helping behaviors included identifying the situation as intervention appropriate, taking responsibility for intervention, deciding how to help, and acting to intervene (Bennett et al., 2014).

Victim Characteristics. In addition to the situation, characteristics of the victim can influence bystander behavior. Research has found that who the victim in need of help is can influence the thoughts and behavior of potential bystanders. A focus on multiple early studies (e.g., Austin, 1979; Howard & Crano, 1974) was how the identity and characteristics of the victim influenced bystander behavior, and these factors continue to provide foundational knowledge and relevance in more recent studies. In a review of decades of studies about bystander behavior, the bystander effect has been found to occur with victims of all genders (Latané & Nida, 1981). Female victims elicited greater amounts of helping (Austin, 1979); one study discovered female victims of theft were almost two times more likely to receive assistance from bystanders than male victims of theft (Howard & Crano, 1974). Also, bystanders were more likely to help people who they had a brief prior conversation

with (Howard & Crano, 1974) and were more likely to help victims who were considered “in-group” members compared to “out-group” members (Levine et al., 2002). Additionally, participants stated they were more likely to intervene if the potential victim was a friend compared to a stranger (Katz et al., 2015). Similarly, bystanders reported a greater sense of responsibility and more empathetic concerns when the potential victim was a friend compared to a stranger (Katz et al., 2015).

Bystander Characteristics. Similar to the way the situation and victim can influence bystander behavior, the characteristics of the bystander can also impact bystander behavior. The impact a bystander’s gender has on their likelihood to intervene as a bystander is a complex and multifaceted one. The bystander effect has been found to occur with bystanders of all genders (Latane & Nida, 1981). Some studies (e.g., Banyard, 2008; McMahon, 2010) have found that women are more likely than men to intervene but other studies (e.g., Austin, 1979; Brewster & Tucker, 2016) have found that an interplay between the gender of the bystander and the situation determine the bystander’s behavior. Men were more likely than women to actively intervene in a situation in which a male and female are having an argument that becomes physical (Brewster & Tucker, 2016) and women were more likely than men to report an incident to authorities (Nicksa, 2014). Men demonstrated greater bystander efficacy than women (Banyard, 2008). Female bystanders were more likely to help in high and low harm situations while male bystanders tended to only help when harm to the victim was high (Austin, 1979). Demographics and their intersectionality influence an individual’s identity and intervention in complex ways. Considering the racist history of policing in the United States and the current rates of

police brutality disproportionally impacting people of color (Oluo, 2019), it is not surprising that recent polls both by Gallup (Jones, 2019) and Pew Research (2020) found that approximately 80% of Black Americans surveyed stated that Black people are treated less fairly by police than White people in their community. These realities are relevant to studies (Aiello, 2019; Zavadil, 2015) finding that people of color are less likely to intervene directly or to call the police or another authority figure for assistance than White participants. Our understanding of bystander behavior as it relates to demographics is constantly evolving as the interplay between different situations and different people are explored and findings from new studies are added to knowledge from prior studies.

An individual's personality has been found to be a factor in their likelihood to intervene in an incident as a bystander. Higher levels of extroversion, interpersonal and sociopolitical control, and a greater perceived sense of community have all been found to be related to more positive bystander outcomes in situations involving interpersonal violence (Banyard, 2008). Additionally, bystanders who felt embarrassment more intensely were slower to help (Zoccola et al., 2011). Also, participants who reported higher pro-social tendencies also reported fewer barriers to helping (Bennett et al., 2014).

In addition to personality, the beliefs held by bystanders can influence their behavior. An individual's belief that they have the ability to successfully and positively impact a situation, their efficacy, has an impact on their likelihood to intervene. Greater bystander efficacy has been found to result in greater bystander intervention (Murphy, 2014). The bystander effect decreases, sometimes to almost

nothing, when the bystander is highly competent (Fischer et al., 2011). Similarly, in a study of individuals who had intervened in incidents involving dangerous crimes and another group who had not intervened in crime incidents but were matched to the interveners in age, sex, education, and ethnic background, it was found that those who intervened were more likely to describe themselves as physically strong, aggressive, emotional, and principled (Huston et al., 1981); while this study is almost 40 years old, it continues to provide insight into factors related to intervention in real-life situations. The understanding that when bystanders feel they have the knowledge, skills, and abilities to help has resulted in colleges and universities providing bystander intervention training to increase the efficacy of potential bystanders to increase campus safety.

Having prior exposure, directly or indirectly, to violence and negative behavior seems to make someone more likely to intervene to help others who are experiencing violence or negative behavior. In a study of individuals who had intervened in incidents involving dangerous crimes, those who intervened reported more prior exposure to crime as a victim or witness prior to the incident they intervened in (Huston et al., 1981); this real-life situation analysis continues to provide relevant information related to actual intervention, compared to intent to intervene or self-reported data that many more recent studies rely on due to the issues of safety and ethics that creating life-like simulations presents to researchers. Similarly, participants were more likely to report intention to help as a bystander if they knew a survivor of sexual assault (Banyard, 2008; McMahon, 2010) or sexual harassment (Zavadil,

2015). Additionally, women who were survivors of sexual assault engaged in more bystander behaviors than women without a history of sexual assault (Murphy, 2014).

Bystander Characteristics of College Students. In addition, many studies on bystander behavior have involved college students specifically as subjects. A wide variety of bystander characteristics have been found to be related to the bystander behavior of college students. College students of color reported significantly ($p < 0.001$) less intention to help than White students (Zavadil, 2015); African Americans were significantly ($p = .009$) less likely than other ethnic minorities or non-Hispanic White respondents to actively intervene in a situation in which a male and female are having an argument that becomes physical (Brewster & Tucker, 2016). Black college men have expressed concern of personal risks because of their racial identities when considering intervening as pro-social bystanders (Hammock et al. 2020). It has been found that the ability of college students to intervene as active bystanders on their campus is impacted by their perceptions of racism, homophobia, and microaggressions (McMahon et al., 2020). Additionally, LGBTQIA+ students were found to be significantly ($p = 0.021$) more likely to help in a sexual harassment situation than heterosexual students (Zavadil, 2015).

The nature of the incident and the people involved in the incident have been found to impact the likelihood that a college bystander will report an incident to an authority figure. When presented with a hypothetical scenario, students were more likely to report a physical assault or a weapon than a theft (Aiello, 2019; Nicksa, 2014) and least likely to report a sexual assault (Nicksa, 2014). In a study of college students, subjects were less likely to report an incident committed by a friend than one

committed by a stranger (Nicksa, 2014). College men were more likely to report a sexual assault if they knew the offender than if the offender was a stranger (Nicksa, 2014). Binge drinking has been found to be related to decreased intent to intervene, decreased positive outcome expectations for intervention, and decreased intervention rates in college men (Schipani-McLaughlin et al., 2020). Additionally, college students reported being more likely to actively intervene in a situation in which a male and female were having an argument that became physical on campus than that same type of incident off-campus (Brewster & Tucker, 2016). It was also found that students of color were significantly ($p \leq .05$) less likely than White classmates to report incidents to campus police, municipal police, or campus staff (Aiello, 2019). While calling an authority to intervene is a form of bystander intervention, being more likely to report an incident to campus was not a predictor of intention to help in a more active manner (Zavadil, 2015). Greater understanding of factors related to college student reporting of incidents allows colleges and universities to better address safety concerns on campus.

Prior relevant knowledge or skill acquisition has been found to increase a student's likelihood to intervene. College students with greater knowledge of campus policies and procedures are more likely to intervene (Toews et al, 2020) and had greater intentions to help (Zavadil, 2015). People who reported having received formal self-defense training were more likely than those who had not to report that they would actively intervene in a situation in which a male and female were having an argument that became physical (Brewster & Tucker, 2016). Additionally, self-defense training had little impact on male bystander's likelihood of intervention but increased female

bystanders' likelihood of intervention in an incident involving a physical argument on campus (Brewster & Tucker, 2016). When the incident occurred off-campus, female college students were unlikely to intervene regardless of their prior training and male college students who had received self-defense training were much more likely to intervene than those without self-defense training (Brewster & Tucker, 2016). Additionally, prior participation in a sexual assault prevention program resulted in greater willingness to help (McMahon, 2010) and greater bystander behavior (Murphy, 2014). Similarly, having previously taken a class that discussed sexual violence and having greater knowledge of information about sexual assault have been found to be related to more positive bystander outcomes in situations involving interpersonal violence (Banyard, 2008). Also, pro-social bystander behaviors in interpersonal violence scenarios were highest in people who had greater knowledge about sexual violence (Banyard, 2008). The sexual assault awareness education that colleges and universities provide may help students avoid risks and may also increase their likelihood to help others in instances of potential sexual assault.

Bystander Behaviors and Values

The beliefs and social norms that the bystander possesses can have an impact on their perception of the situation and likelihood of intervening. The tradeoff among relative values, not the importance of any one value, affects behavior and attitudes (Schwartz, 2012). An early study (Horowitz, 1971) on bystander behavior found that group membership and norms impacted bystander behavior with members of groups with an emphasis on service intervening more than members of groups with a purely social purpose (Horowitz, 1971). Similarly, a quantitative study of 948 first-year

college students from two colleges (Banyard et al., 2018) found that student perceptions of peer helping norms and perceptions of community influence were linked to higher levels of a bystander's sense of responsibility to help which was related to greater pro-social bystander action. It has been found that men intervene in situations of sexual assault due to moral beliefs about the need to help women and/or other vulnerable people (Hoxmeier et al., 2020; Kaya et al., 2020). The impact of community norms, values, and group membership may have an important impact on bystander behavior in a college environment.

Bystander Behaviors, Values, and College Sexual Assault

An individual's beliefs have been found to affect their likelihood to intervene in an incident of college sexual violence. Students who felt a greater sense of responsibility to intervene were more likely to engage in bystander intervention behaviors in situations of college sexual and intimate partner violence (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011). Additionally, an individual's belief in rape myths (prejudices, stereotypes, and false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists, i.e. women who dress in certain clothing are "asking for it (rape)" or that rape occurs because men cannot control their sexual impulses) had an impact on their likelihood to intervene as a bystander in incidents of sexual and relationship violence. While some of the studies highlighted here are more than 10 years old, they continue to be relevant to our current understanding of how beliefs and social norms influence bystander behavior. In a meta-analysis of research on rape myth acceptance, nine studies found a correlation between rape myth acceptance and sexual aggression (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). In studies of college students, less rape myth acceptance was found to be related to more

positive bystander outcomes involving situations of interpersonal violence (Banyard, 2008) and greater rape myth acceptance was negatively related to willingness to intervene (McMahon, 2010). Additionally, in a study of 406 undergraduate students, the researchers found that students who reported higher peer norms supportive of coercion and those who reported greater rape myth acceptance also reported engaging in greater numbers of bystander behaviors related to sexual and intimate partner violence (Banyard & Moynihan, 2011). Also, men who perceived that fewer of their peers were comfortable with sexism were more likely to engage in bystander behavior (Murphy, 2014). Additionally, peer norms that support sexual violence and students' greater perception of campus administration responsiveness are related to lower bystander intervention scores (McConnell, 2018).

There has been much research on the behavior of bystanders since the 1964 murder of Kitty Genovese. Multiple theories including the Situational Model (Latane & Darley, 1970), Arousal: Cost – Reward Model (Piliavin et al., 1975), and the Action Coils Model (Banyard, 2015) have been created to explain the actions of bystanders and factors related to bystander behavior. In the hundreds of studies done on bystander behavior, factors related to the situation, the victim, and the bystander have been found to impact bystander behavior.

Summary

Much research related to sexual assault relates to values, human behavior, and specifically bystander behavior. The Universal Theory of Values (Schwartz, 1992) has identified universal values, how these values relate to each other, and six common features of values that are consistent across locations and cultures. Research has found

that values can motivate action in situations of perceived injustice (van Zomeren, 2008, 2012, 2018). Similarly, human behavior has been explained with a combination of external factors and internal feelings in both the Norm Activation Model (Schwartz, 1977) and the A-B-C Model (Guagnano et al., 1995). More specifically, bystander behavior has also been found to be related to the situation and the feelings of the bystander (e.g., Banyard, 2015; Latane & Darley, 1970; Piliavin et al., 1975). The specific relationship between values and bystander behavior in situations of college sexual assault has not been previously studied and was explored in this quantitative study. The following chapters will include the methodology used to explore the relationship between values and bystander behavior, the results of the study, and discussion about the findings and areas for future study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The following chapter will discuss the methodology used to conduct this quantitative study that investigated the relationship between student and community values and the extent to which students engage as pro-social bystanders in incidents of college sexual and/or gender-based violence. Preexisting institutional data from a survey of undergraduate students collected during spring 2020 was utilized for this ex post facto study. The participating university partnered with the Higher Education Data Sharing Consortium (HEDS) to conduct the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (2019). The HEDS survey contained questions about institutional climate, unwanted sexual contact and sexual assault, bystander behavior, and student demographics. The survey administrators at the participating university added additional questions to the distributed HEDS survey about meaningful relationships, prevention education, and values. The questions added about values were similar to questions in the Character Education Values and Practices Inventory (CEVPI, Chen, 2005). The participating university's Institutional Research Office provided relevant raw data, devoid of identifying information, for quantitative analysis for this study.

Research Questions

The purpose of this quantitative study was to analyze the relationship between the values held by college students and student engagement as pro-social bystanders in incidents of sexual violence. More specifically, the values that were explored included

individual student values, student perceptions of peer values, and student perceptions of institutional values. This study explored student values and bystander behavior at a small, private, religiously affiliated university on the West Coast of the U.S. The specific research questions addressed were:

1) How common is bystander intervention in the study participants; are there types of intervention behavior that are more or less common than others?
2) What values do the study participants hold; are there values that are more or less common than others?
3) What do the data indicate about the relationship between values and bystander behavior?

Hypotheses

R1) How common is bystander intervention in the study participants; are there types of intervention behavior that are more or less common than others?

H1) It was hypothesized that more than half of the students reported witnessing an incident of sexual assault or potential sexual assault would have intervened to help end the situation and/or assist the potential victim. The participating university has a strong culture of community and many of the undergraduate students know each other or could be described as friends of friends. Research indicates that people are more likely to intervene when they have relationships with the parties involved in an incident of possible harm (Howard & Crano, 1974). The majority of the situations of sexual violence that have been addressed via the university's student conduct process in the last five years have involved some type of bystander intervention. Additionally, the response rate of 19% of students may indicate that students who chose to

participate in a campus climate survey about sexual assault would be those with more direct or indirect experience or knowledge with sexual violence. Research has found that people who have greater knowledge and experience related to a situation are more likely to intervene (Banyard, 2008; Huston et al., 1981; McMahon, 2010; Murphy, 2014; Zavadil, 2015).

It was hypothesized that the type of intervention would vary depending on the situation and the parties involved but that less direct forms of intervention, such as creating a distraction, would be more common than more direct forms of intervention, such as separating the people involved. The participating university utilized Green Dot etc. (Alteristic, n.d.) bystander intervention education with all incoming students and also provided opportunities for students to complete a more in-depth 6-hour training. In Green Dot etc. (Alteristic, n.d.) students are taught about the "3 Ds" for intervention – direct, delegate, and distract. It was hypothesized that less direct forms of intervention would be more frequent among the student sample, due to the relational aspects of university culture.

It was hypothesized that student demographics would affect intervention rates and types. Consistent with the research (Banyard, 2008; McMahon, 2010; Nicksa, 2014), it was hypothesized female students would intervene more often and the male students would be more likely to intervene directly. Research (Aiello, 2019; Zavadil, 2015) indicates that White individuals are more likely than people of color to intervene, thus, it is hypothesized that White students would be more likely to intervene than students of color.

R2) What values do the study participants hold; are there values that are more or less common than others?

H2) It was hypothesized that values related to community, like caring, would be more common than values associated with success, like ambitious. The participating university markets itself as a place where relationships and care are at the center of the campus experience, and thus it was expected that students who chose to attend would hold similar values. As such it is hypothesized that values related to community and others would be held by the student body. A study at Florida State University that utilized the CEVPI, found that values related to community and others were absent from the 10 most commonly held student values (Brown, 2007; Lilley & Schwartz, 2009). In the Florida State study, students were asked to rate the importance of character values on a scale from 1 (not important at all) to 7 (very important). Students ranked the character values of ambitious (5.57) and independent (5.57) as most important while chaste (2.51) and devout (2.87) were identified as the least important (Brown, 2007; Lilley & Schwartz, 2009). I hypothesized that the differences in institution size (Florida State University was approximately 10 times larger than the participating university at the time of data collection), institution type (the participating university is private and Florida State is public) and mission (the participating university strongly emphasizes community and Florida State University is a Research I institution) would result in students holding different values. It was hypothesized that while values would be different from student to student that student demographics would not significantly affect values.

R3) What do the data indicate about the relationship between values and bystander behavior?

H3) It was hypothesized that those who intervened would have values more associated with caring than those bystanders who did not intervene. Since values can motivate action (van Zomeren et al., 2018), it was anticipated that individuals who have values of responsibility would be more likely to intervene than those who do not. Additionally, it was hypothesized that bystanders who intervened would perceive that their peers have values and their institution promotes values more associated with care and responsibility than those who did not intervene. The social norms of a group can impact members' likelihood to intervene as a bystander (Horowitz, 1971).

Rationale for Methodology and Research Design

The topic of individual and community values related to bystander intervention in instances of college sexual violence has not been studied. To begin to understand a possible relationship between values and bystander behavior in these situations, a quantitative ex post facto study was chosen. This study was conducted utilizing data from a survey of undergraduate college students at a small, private, religiously affiliated university on the West Coast. The survey contained questions about bystander behavior, values, and demographics as well as questions about campus climate and experiences with sexual assault. The majority of the survey questions were closed-ended questions, which allowed for standardization and comparison across respondents (Muijs, 2011). Surveying allowed for a greater number of participants to be included in the study, which increases reliability and generalizability of the findings (Muijs, 2011). Survey research is highly flexible, is efficient, allows for easy

anonymity, and allows for easy comparability between respondents through the use of standardized questions (Muijs, 2011). Utilizing data from an existing survey that contained questions about bystander behavior and values allowed for the potential for greater response rates and reduced the possibility of survey fatigue in the study population.

Participants and Setting

The participating university was selected due to reported student engagement in pro-social bystander behavior within the university. The participating university has a mission statement that includes ethical reflection and care for others. Additionally, the participating university offers coursework related to character building. I wanted to explore how individual values and student perceptions of peer and institutional values related to pro-social bystander behavior in an environment where, seemingly, values related to ethical care for others were lived out in the campus community.

The entire population of undergraduate, degree-seeking students over the age of 18 enrolled during the spring 2020 semester at a small, private, religiously affiliated university on the West Coast were invited to participate in the survey from which the study's data set originated. The participating university is a predominantly (>50%) White institution. The majority (>60%) of degree-seeking undergraduate students in the 2019-2020 academic year were female. While the university draws students from across the country and internationally, it primarily attracts students regionally with the majority (>70%) of the degree-seeking undergraduate students in 2019-2020 coming from West Coast states. Of the students invited to participate in the anonymous and voluntary survey, 696 (19%) participated in the survey. Of the 696 students who

participated in the survey, only 632 received the bystander questions relevant to this study due to their answers to previous survey questions and skip-logic rules built into the survey. To be included in this study, the survey participant needed to have completed all the relevant bystander behavior questions and fully answered all of the values questions, which resulted in 15 values being identified, five for each of the three values questions. Thus, 419 (60%) of survey participants were included in the study; see Table 2 for additional information about students who participated in the survey but were removed from the study for failing to meet the criteria for the study.

Table 2

Survey Participants and Study Participants

	n	Percent of total survey participants
Total survey participants	696	100%
Survey participants included in this study	419	60%
Survey participants removed from this study	277	40%
Rationale for removal from study		
Did not receive relevant bystander questions	53	8%
Did not fully answer relevant bystander questions	50	7%
Did not fully answer values questions	125	18%
Did not receive relevant bystander questions and did not fully answer values questions	11	2%
Did not fully answer relevant bystander questions and did not fully answer values questions	38	5%

Demographics

Prior to providing data collected by the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (2019) to the participating university, HEDS cleaned the data to remove identifying information. The data cleaning involved removing data from some questions entirely (i.e., full-time student status, citizenship, and single-gender housing) and collapsing certain responses into categories (i.e., non-White, not heterosexual, and off-campus). Collapsing data, specifically race/ethnicity and gender/sexuality data, prevented insight into experiences of students who are statistically at a higher risk of sexual violence but did protect student anonymity. As a result of the data cleaning,

much of the demographic data provided in the data set for this study was binary in nature. The majority of the study participants identified as heterosexual (74%), women (68%), lived on campus (65%), and were White (65%). More first year college students (39%) were included in the survey than students in other years of college. The demographics of the study participants were similar to the student demographics; however, more first year students, students who live on campus, women, and White students completed the survey than population demographics would have suggested. Table 3 contains additional information about how study participant demographics compare to student demographics at the participating university.

Table 3

Study Participant and Participating University Student Demographics

	Study participants	Undergraduate students at participating university (Fall 2019)
Year in School		
First Year	39%	30%
Sophomore	20%	24%
Junior	22%	22%
Senior	20%	25%
Housing		
On-campus	65%	54%
Off-campus	34%	46%
No survey data	1%	----
Gender		
Women	68%	62%
Men	31%	39%
No survey data/Other	1%	< 1%
Race		
White Participants	65%	53%
Participants of Color[1]	34%	44%
Missing survey data/Unknown	1%	2%
Sexuality		
Heterosexual	74%	---
LGBTQIA+[2]	25%	---
No survey data	1%	---

Notes.
1 "Participants of Color" data resulted from collapsed data from HEDS to protect student anonymity. Includes all race/ethnicity responses other than only "White," including White and Hispanic/Latino/a.
2 "LGBTQIA+" data resulted from collapsed data from HEDS to protect student anonymity. Includes all sexuality responses other than "heterosexual." Demographic data about transgender students was removed by HEDS to protect student anonymity.

Instrument

Data for this study were collected using the Higher Education Data Sharing Consortium (HEDS) Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey for undergraduate students (2019). An additional six questions related to meaningful relationship and values and one open ended general feedback question were added to the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (2019) distributed to undergraduate students at a

small, private, religiously affiliated university on the West Coast during the spring of 2020. The choice to utilize an existing data set instead of conducting separate data collection was made to gain access to a greater number of responses than were likely from a separate surveying and to avoid survey fatigue in the student population.

HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey

The HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (2019) contained approximately 50 questions about general campus climate, experiences involving unwanted sexual contact and sexual assault and their context, and demographics; responses to some questions impacted future questions asked to participants. HEDS developed their Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey using the 2014 White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault's survey as a starting place (Lisa Kidd, HEDS Research Analysis and Data Manager, personal communication, July 10, 2020). HEDS worked with Title IX Coordinators and institutional researchers at 30 institutions to revise and develop their Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (Lisa Kidd, HEDS Research Analysis and Data Manager, personal communication, July 10, 2020). Data collected in the newly created HEDS survey was compared to data collected from existing surveys of similar topic to verify the new survey resulted in similar results and ensure validity (Lisa Kidd, HEDS Research Analysis and Data Manager, personal communication, July 10, 2020). To ensure reliability, every year HEDS reviews survey data to ensure scales continue to work as they did when created in 2015. HEDS data from the 2016-2017, 2017-2018, 2018-2019, and 2019-2020 Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey were compared and the sections of the survey (general campus climate, Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.85$; response to difficult or dangerous

situation, Cronbach's α = 0.90; views on sexual assault at your institution, Cronbach's α = 0.79; views on institutional response to report of sexual assault; Cronbach's α = 0.89) remained reliable over time; general campus climate the reliability of the survey (HEDS, 2020). The survey took approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Bystander Behavior. The HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (2019) contained a section about bystander behavior. The questions in this section were skip logic questions that only provided additional questions related to intervention based on prior question answers. Bystander behavior questions in the survey included whether or not the participant had observed a situation that involved sexual assault or possible sexual assault, if the participant intervened in the situation, and what action they took. An example of a question from the survey related to values is:

How did you intervene?

- *I stepped in and separated the people involved in the situation.*
- *I asked the person who appeared to be at risk if they needed help*
- *I confronted the person who appeared to be causing the situation*
- *I created a distraction to cause one or more of the people to disengage from the situation*
- *I asked others to step in with me and diffuse the situation*
- *I told someone in a position of authority about the situation*
- *Other: _____*

Character Education Values and Practices Inventory

Three additional questions derived from the Character Education Values and Practices Inventory (CEVPI, Chen, 2005) related to student values, student perception of peer values, and student perception of institutional values were added to the HEDS survey distributed to the participating university in the spring of 2020. The specific

values that were explored in this study are from the CEVPI (Chen, 2005). The 44 values included in the CEVPI were derived from a study (Dalton et al., 2003, as cited in Chen, 2005) of college presidents about the principles and practices they believe to be most important in college students' character development. The validity and reliability of the CEVPI (Chen, 2005) was tested in a preliminary study utilizing a small group of student affairs practitioners; results and feedback from the preliminary study were used to calculate the reliability index coefficient α and to finalize the instrument (Chen, 2005). The CEVPI (Chen, 2005) received positive feedback from its preliminary study participants about the validity of the instrument and was found to have a coefficient α of .973, indicating the questionnaire was a very reliable instrument (Chen, 2005). The values from the CEVPI included in the supplemental questions were added by the participating university because they were based on college students and environments. In these questions about values survey participants were asked to identify, from a list of character values from the CEVPI, the top five values they hold, that they perceive their peers holding, and that they perceive their institution promoting. An example of a question from the survey related to values is:

> *S-4. Please mark the five values that are most important to you (check all that apply):*
>
> - *Altruistic*
> - *Ambitious*
> - *Caring*
> - *Chaste*
> - *Civic-minded*
> - *Committed*
> - *Compassionate*
> - *Cooperative*
> - *Empathetic*
> - *Fair*
> - *Faithful*
> - *Forgiving*
> - *Generous*
> - *Honest*
> - *Hopeful*
> - *Imaginative*
> - *Loyal*
> - *Modest*
> - *Obedient*
> - *Open minded*
> - *Optimistic*
> - *Patient*
> - *Patriotic*
> - *Persevering*
> - *Purposeful*
> - *Rational*
> - *Reflective*
> - *Respectful*
> - *Responsible*
> - *Self-controlled*
> - *Tolerant*
> - *Trusting*

- *Courageous*
- *Daring*
- *Devout*
- *Introspective*
- *Just*
- *Loving*
- *Polite*
- *Proud*
- *Prudent*
- *Trustworthy*

Design and Procedures

The HEDS Sexual Assault Climate Survey (2019) containing additional questions related to meaningful relationships and values was sent to all degree-seeking undergraduate students enrolled at the university during the Spring 2020 semester. The survey was open to students from February 19, 2020 until April 8, 2020. Originally the survey was planned to be open until April 1, 2020 but the timeline was extended in an effort to increase the response rate in light of the COVID-19 pandemic. The participating university moved to remote instruction on March 16, 2020 as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. Students received multiple email communications about the survey. Prior to the survey's launch, students received an email from the University's Title IX Office on February 17, 2020 about the upcoming survey. Students received a survey invitation containing a link to the survey via email on February 19, 2020. Students who had not yet completed the survey received reminder emails containing a link to the survey on February 21, March 9, and March 24, 2020. Students who had not yet completed the survey received an email on April 7, 2020 notifying them that the survey was going to be closing on April 8, 20202, this final email also contained a link to access the survey.

Survey response rates (see Table 4) were highest during the first two weeks the survey was open with 233 (6%) responses after the initial invitation and an additional 226 (12% total) in the week after the first reminder email. Responses were

significantly reduced, as expected during the university's spring break during the week of March 2 – 6, 2020. Survey responses continued again after spring break to result in 698 total responses (19% total). Response rates for the survey after spring break were lower than expected based on previous survey response rates at the university and typical HEDS survey response rates. The lower response rate in March and early April was likely due to the timing of the COVID-19 pandemic's effect on the university community.

Table 4

Timeline of Survey Communication, Impacting Events, and Response Rates

Date	Event	HEDS Survey Responses	
		Since Last Event	Total
2/17/2020	Pre-survey email to students from Title IX.	n/a	n/a
2/19/2020	Survey invitation email to students.	n/a	n/a
2/21/2020	First survey reminder email to students.	233 (6%)	233 (6%)
2/28/2020	Last day of classes before spring break.	226 (6%)	459 (12%)
3/2-3/6/2020	No classes due to spring break.	5 (0%)	464 (13%)
3/9/2020	Second survey reminder email to students.	121[a] (3%)	585 (16%)
3/12/2020	Email from university president about move to remote instruction due to COVID-19.	n/a[b]	n/a
3/24/2020	Third survey reminder email to students.	21[c] (1%)	606 (16%)
4/7/2020	Email to students about survey closing on 4/8.	62[d] (2%)	668 (18%)
4/8/2020	HEDS survey closes.	30 (1%)	698 (19%)

Notes. a = survey completion data from 3/10/2020
b = no survey completion data provided by HEDS this week (likely due to COVID-19 disruptions)
c = survey completion data from 3/21/2020
d = survey completion data from 3/30/2020

The Institutional Research Office at the participating university agreed to share raw data from the spring 2020 survey for the purpose of this study. The participating university received survey data back from HEDS in the summer of 2020. Data received from HEDS had been cleaned of identifying information including the combination of some demographic responses. After IRB approval was obtained, I was provided access to raw data from the HEDS survey about bystander behavior, values, and demographics. Data about bystander behavior, values, and demographics were explored through casual comparative quantitative analysis in SPSS to answer the research questions.

Role of Researcher

I identify as a student affairs professional. During my 15-year career in higher education, I have engaged with over 100 students from four separate institutions of higher education in four separate states about their experiences in incidents of sexual harassment and violence. I have served as a prevention educator, a decision maker/adjudicator, and as an investigator of incidents of sexual harassment and violence. The specific topic of this study was selected based on my work with students who engaged as pro-social bystanders and/or chose to report incidents of sexual violence impacting their peers.

While I do not condone or support sexual or relationship violence, my roles as an adjudicator and investigator require fair, equitable, and unbiased treatment of all students/parties. Five years of experience serving a campus in unbiased response to reports of sexual harassment and violence have prepared me to address this study in a

trustworthy manner. Additionally, the quantitative nature of the study helps to reduce potential researcher bias. I am hopeful that greater understanding into the relationship between student and community values and college student engagement as pro-social bystanders in incidents of sexual violence may help support the creation of campus communities that are safe and inclusive for all students. While I am hopeful that this study may help reduce campus sexual violence, I believe that the only way to further this cause is through unbiased study and exploration.

Ethical Considerations

Participation in the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (2019) was voluntary. No incentives were provided for participation in the survey. Due to the potentially triggering subject matter of the survey, all survey related communication contained a link for students to opt out of additional communication about the survey. Additionally, emails about the survey and the survey itself contains information about campus, local, and national resources related to sexual violence. Contact information for a staff member at HEDS was also provided to students, so any questions about the survey and/or anonymity could be addressed outside the university.

Participation in the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (2019) was anonymous. In order to protect anonymity, all communication about the survey, including sending links to access the survey and reminder emails was done by HEDS. The institution received no information about which possible study participants completed the survey, opted out of survey communication, and/or did not responded to the survey. Prior to the university receiving data from the survey, HEDS cleaned the data of potentially identifying information to protect participant anonymity. The

HEDS survey data were collected using Qualtrics, an online survey platform that uses encryption best practices in all steps of the data collection process. The Director of the Institutional Research Office at the participating university was required to sign a statement of understanding regarding the use of information gathered for HEDS prior to the university's partnership with HEDS to ensure that data collected would be treated confidentially and appropriately. Data from HEDS provided to the participating university and for this study was downloaded and stored on password protected computer or password protected online system. In addition, the use of the HEDS survey was approved by the IRB Committee at Wabash College on September 28, 2018. When IRB approval was sought for the collection of data by the participating university in January 2020, their IRB Committee determined that the collection of data from the HEDS survey was not considered research requiring IRB approval because the data were not intended for external dissemination by the participating university. Finally, IRB approval to conduct this study was granted on August 14, 2020.

Data Analysis

Data collected in the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (2019) with additional questions added by the participating university were analyzed quantitatively. Below is more detail about how each research question was answered using quantitative analysis.

R1) How common is bystander intervention in the study participants; are there types of intervention behavior that are more or less common than others?

Data about student bystander behavior were collected via questions in the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (2019). When students responded that they observed a situation they believed was sexual assault or a situation they believed could have led to a sexual assault, they received additional questions about their actions as bystanders. Students who believed they had observed an active or potential sexual assault situation were asked if they intervened. Those who stated that they did intervene were asked how they intervened. The specific questions and answer choices related to bystander behavior are below.

BB-Q3. Did you intervene?

- *Yes*
- *I considered intervening but did not feel safe doing so*
- *I considered intervening but did not feel comfortable doing so*
- *I considered intervening but did not know how to*
- *I did not intervene*

BB-Q4. How did you intervene?

- *I stepped in and separated the people involved in the situation.*
- *I asked the person who appeared to be at risk if they needed help*
- *I confronted the person who appeared to be causing the situation*
- *I created a distraction to cause one or more of the people to disengage from the situation*
- *I asked others to step in with me and diffuse the situation*
- *I told someone in a position of authority about the situation*
- *Other: _____*

Utilizing data from BB-Q3, descriptive statistics were used to answer the question related to how common bystander intervention was in study participants. Descriptive statistics were used with data from BB-Q4 to address the question of the prevalence of specific types of bystander intervention behavior. Data from BB-Q3 and BB-Q4 were looked at collectively, disaggregated by demographics, and analyzed

using chi-square tests or Fisher's Exact test to investigate if different subgroups of student participants responded differently.

R2) What values do the study participants hold; are there values that are more or less common than others?

Data about student values and student perceptions of peer and institutional values were collected via the additional questions the participating university added to the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (2019). Participants were asked to identify the five values most important to them, the five values they believed were most important to the students at the participating university, and the five values they believed were most promoted by the university. The list of character values students selected from were from the CEVPI (Chen, 2005) and are included in Table 5.

Table 5

Character Values of Each Aspect from the Character Values Survey (Chen, 2005, p.131)

Three Aspects of Good Character		
Affective	Behavioral	Cognitive
Caring	Altruistic	Ambitious
Chaste	Civic-minded	Committed
Compassionate	Compassionate	Daring
Courageous	Cooperative	Imaginative
Devout	Empathetic	Independent*
Empathetic	Fair	Introspective
Faithful	Generous	Open-minded
Forgiving	Honest	Optimistic
Generous	Just	Patriotic
Hopeful	Open-minded	Persevering
Humble*	Reflective	Proud
Loving	Respectful	Prudent
Loyal	Responsible	Purposeful
Modest	Tolerant	Rational
Obedient	Trustworthy	Reflective
Optimistic		
Patient		
Patriotic		
Polite		
Prudent		
Self-controlled		
Trusting		

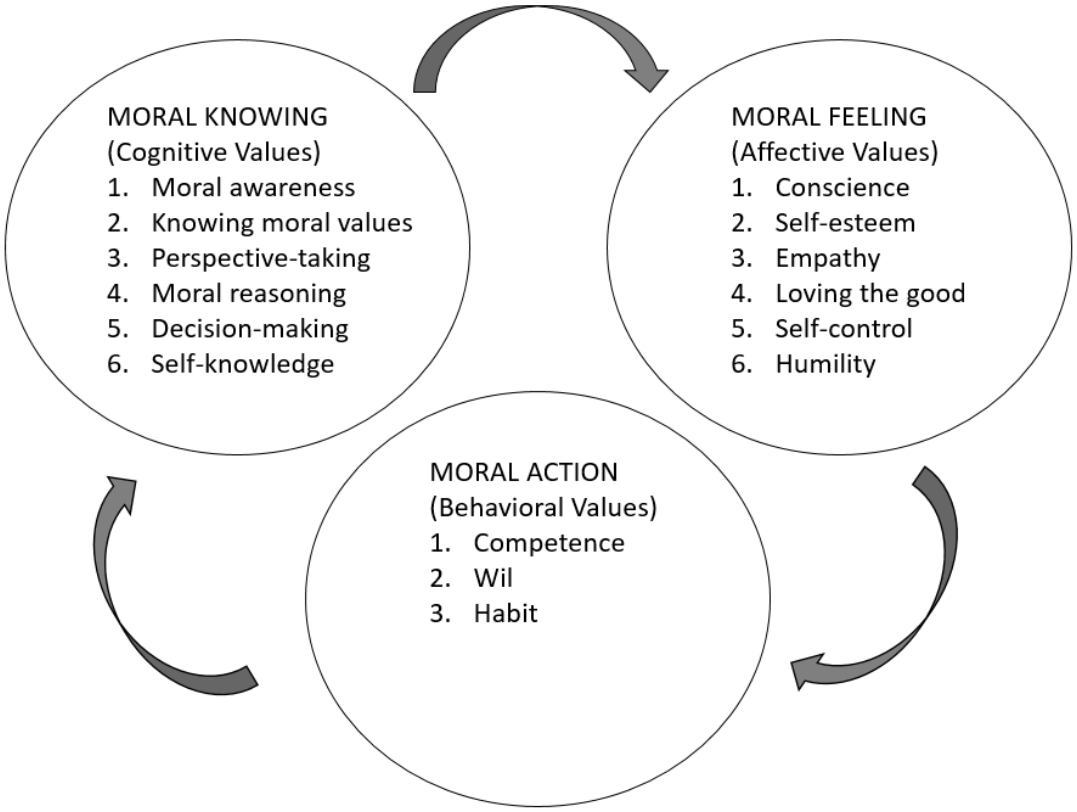
Note. *Character value from the CEVPI (Chen, 2005) that was not included in the supplemental questions added by the participating university.

Data from the three supplemental questions about values were analyzed using descriptive statistics to answer the question: what values do the study participants hold; are there values that are more or less common than others. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the frequency of each individual value being identified as a top five value by participants. Additionally, values identified as top values by participants were also grouped together as affective, cognitive, or behavioral values utilizing the

Character Values Scale (CVS, Chen, 2005). Chen's scale was based on the work of Lickona (1991, 1998), who identified the aspects of good character as "knowing the good [moral knowing/cognitive aspects], desiring the good [moral feeling/affective aspects], and doing the good [moral action/behavioral aspects]" (1998, p. 79). The affective, cognitive, and behavioral values from the CVS are listed in Table 5. The components of Lickona's (1991, 1998) three aspects of good characters are in Figure 6. The frequency of affective values, cognitive values, and behavioral values were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Data from the supplemental questions about values were looked at collectively, disaggregated by demographics, and analyzed via Fisher's Exact test to see if different subgroups of student participants responded differently.

Figure 6

Aspects of Good Character (Lickona, 1991, p.53) With Corresponding Values Categories From CVS (Chen, 2005)



R3) What do the data indicate about the relationship between values and bystander behavior?

Data about student bystander behavior, student values, and perception of peer and institutional values were collected via the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (2019) including the additional questions the participating university added. Data from the questions about bystander behavior and values were utilized to explore the relationship between values and bystander behavior. Whether or not a student intervened (BB-Q3) and the values (S-4) the student identified were explored using

Fisher's Exact tests. Similarly, bystander behavior and the values the participant identified as the values of their peers (S-5) and values promoted by the institution (S-6) were also explored with Fisher's Exact test.

Summary

Data collected from the undergraduate student population of the participating university in the spring of 2020 via the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey, including supplemental questions provided by the participating university were used to explore the relationship between values and bystander behavior in situations of college sexual assault. In the survey, students were asked if they had observed a situation that they perceived to be or could have led to sexual assault, if they intervened in the situation, and how they intervened. Students were also asked to identify their top five values, the top five values they believe their peers held, and the top five values promoted by the participating university from a list of 44 character values obtained from the CEVPI (Chen, 2005). Data from the survey about bystander behavior and values were explored via descriptive statistics to answer (RQ1) how common is bystander intervention in the study participants; are there types of intervention behavior that are more or less common than others, and (RQ2) What values do the study participants hold; are there values that are more or less common than others. The relationship between the survey data about bystander behavior and values were explored using Chi Square analysis to answer (RQ3) what do the data indicate about the relationship between values and bystander behavior? The following chapters will include the results of the study and discussion on the study and opportunities for future exploration.

Chapter 4: Results

College sexual assault is a substantial problem that can be addressed through bystander intervention, as demonstrated in the previous literature review. This study examined college student and community values and bystander intervention behavior in college sexual assault incidents. This chapter provides the findings of the data analysis and is organized by the following three research questions:

1) How common is bystander intervention in the study participants; are there types of intervention behavior that are more or less common than others?
2) What values do the study participants hold; are there values that are more or less common than others?
3) What do the data indicate about the relationship between values and bystander behavior?

Bystander Intervention in Study Participants

The first research question, how common is bystander intervention in the study participants; are there types of intervention behavior that are more or less common than others, was explored through quantitative data analysis. The data were analyzed in SPSS using descriptive statistics. Most (64%, n = 269) of study participants had not seen a situation that they believe was or could lead to sexual assault. Participants who stated that they had observed a situation they believe was sexual assault did not receive the question about if they observed a situation they believe may lead to sexual

assault but instead proceeded directly to questions about intervention. More student participants observed a situation that they believed could lead to sexual assault (17%) than one that they believe was an active sexual assault (8%). Only these participants (24%, *n* = 102) who had observed a sexual assault or potential sexual assault situation received additional questions about intervention; the participants (64%, *n* = 269) who did not observe a sexual assault or potential sexual assault and those participants who were not sure if they had observed a sexual assault or potential sexual assault situation (12%, *n* = 48) did not receive additional bystander intervention questions. Survey respondents who stated that they had experienced a sexual assault, did not receive questions about witnessing a sexual assault and instead received alternative questions related to their assault. The respondents who experienced a sexual assault were not included in the study because they did not answer the questions related to being a bystander in a sexual assault incident. See Table 6 for more information about student participant observations of sexual assault situations.

Table 6

Study Participants Who Observed Sexual Assault Situations

	Situation that was sexual assault (*n* = 419)		Situation that could lead to sexual assault (*n* = 384)[1]		Either sexual assault situation (*n* = 419)	
	n	%	*N*	%	*n*	%
Observed	35	8%	67	17%	102	24%
Did not observe	352	84%	273	71%	269	64%
Maybe observed	32	8%	44	12%	48	11%

Intervention in Sexual Assault Incidents by Study Participants

While the majority of participants did not observe a situation that they believed to be a sexual assault or a situation they believed could lead to a sexual assault, the majority of participants (67%, $n = 68$) who saw a situation involving an active or potential sexual assault intervened to help in some way. It is noteworthy that while intervention rates were almost identical in active and potential sexual assault situations, the reasons participants did not intervene were significantly different ($p = .014$) between active and potential sexual assault situations when comparing those who intervened, those who did not intervene because they did not feel safe doing so, and those who did not intervene for another reason. In active sexual assault situations, no participants stated they did not help because of their own discomfort or did not consider intervening. However, in potential sexual assault situations the most common response related to not intervening, for 12% of participants, was simply choosing not to intervene following closely by not being comfortable intervening (9%) which was selected at the same rate as not feeling safe to intervene (9%). In active sexual assault situations, 29% of participants stated that they did not intervene when intervening did not feel safe, while 6% of participants did not intervene when they felt they did not know how to intervene. See Table 7 for more information about intervention by study participants.

Table 7

Intervention by Study Participants Who Observed Sexual Assault Situations

Bystander Behavior	Situation that was sexual assault (n = 35)	Situation that could lead to sexual assault (n = 67)	Either sexual assault situation (n = 102)
Total intervened to help the victim	66%	67%	67%
Total did not intervene to help victim	34%	33%	33%
Considered intervening but did not feel safe doing so	29%*	9%	16%
Considered intervening but did not feel comfortable doing so	0%	9%*	6%
Considered intervening but did not know how to	6%	3%	4%
Did not consider intervening	0%	12%*	8%

Notes. * $p < .05$

Intervention Strategies Utilized in Sexual Assault Incidents by Study Participants

The most common form of intervention by study participants was asking the victim if they needed help. Of the student participants who intervened to help in a sexual assault situation, asking the potential victim if they needed help was the most common form of intervention in both active and potential sexual assault situations; getting others to help diffuse the situation was equally common in situations of potential sexual assault. The least common form of intervention in active sexual assaults was contacting an authority figure and confronting the perpetrator in potential sexual assaults. The one participant who stated they intervened in a potential sexual assault in a way other than the provided multiple-choice options described an intervention that could be categorized as contacting an authority figure and continuing

to observe the incident prior to the arrival of the authority figure, so this "other" response has been combined with "contacted an authority figure" for analysis.

The majority of participants who intervened to help in both sexual assault and possible sexual assault situations intervened in one way, while some participants intervened in up to four ways. The mean number of interventions utilized by intervening participants, regardless of incident type was almost identical (M = 1.74, SD = .964 for active sexual assaults and M = 1.69, SD = .925 for potential sexual assaults). In active sexual assault situations, 52% of participants who intervened utilized one intervention technique, 30% utilized two intervention techniques, and 9% utilized three or four intervention techniques. In potential sexual assault situations, 53% of participants who intervened utilized one intervention technique, 33% utilized two intervention techniques, 4% utilized three intervention techniques, and 9% utilized four intervention techniques. In situations during which a participant utilized multiple intervention strategies, the most common strategies were asking if the victim needed help, recruiting help to diffuse the situation, and separating the parties involved. Participants who observed an active sexual assault were more likely (22%) to confront the perpetrator than participants who observed a situation that could lead to a sexual assault (3%).

Study Participant Demographics and Intervention.

Observation by demographics. Demographic data had little impact on bystander intervention and type of intervention when data were disaggregated by demographics. Most data about observing a sexual assault did not differ significantly on year in school, living on or off-campus, gender, race/ethnicity, or sexuality when

Chi Square analysis was conducted on disaggregated data. The only time demographic data impacted the likelihood that a participant observed a sexual assault situation in a significant manner was in observation of situations that participants believe could lead to a sexual assault when data were disaggregated by year in college and race. First Year students were more likely not to have observed an incident that could lead to sexual assault than returning students ($p = .033$). Additionally, participants of color were more likely ($p = .038$) to not have observed a situation involving a potential sexual assault than White participants. To protect participant anonymity, HEDS combined all race and ethnicity data into the two categories of *White only* and *not White only*. In this paper, these two subgroups of participants are referred to as White participants and participants of color. The participants of color subgroup contains responses of Hispanic or Latino/a, American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, and any combination of races/ethnicities. These significant differences based on the year in college and race/ethnicity of the participant did not also exist in observation of active sexual assault situations or all (active and potential) sexual assault situations combined. Table 8 contains additional data about observations of sexual assaults disaggregated by demographic data.

Table 8

Observation of Sexual Assault Situations Disaggregated by Demographics

	Observed an Active Sexual Assault Situation			Observed a Potential Sexual Assault Situation			Observed Either Sexual Assault Situation		
	Yes (*n* = 35)	No (*n* = 352)	Unsure (*n* = 32)	Yes (*n* = 67)	No (*n* = 273)	Unsure (*n* = 44)	Yes (*n* = 102)	No (*n* = 269)	Unsure (*n* = 48)
Total	8%	84%	8%	17%	71%	12%	24%	64%	11%
Year in College									
First Year	7%	88%	6%	16%	78%*	7%	22%	70%	8%
Returning	9%	82%	9%	19%	67%	15%*	26%	60%	14%
Residence									
On-Campus	8%	85%	8%	15%	74%	11%	22%	67%	11%
Off-Campus	10%	83%	8%	23%	64%	13%	30%	58%	12%
Gender									
Men	6%	85%	9%	15%	74%	12%	20%	67%	12%
Women	9%	84%	7%	19%	70%	12%	26%	63%	11%
Race/Ethnicity									
White Participants	8%	83%	9%	20%*	67%	13%	27%	61%	12%
Participants of Color	8%	87%	5%	12%	79%*	9%	19%	71%	10%
Sexuality									
Heterosexual	7%	86%	7%	18%	72%	10%	24%	66%	10%
LGBTQIA+	11%	79%	11%	14%	70%	16%	23%	61%	16%

Notes. * $p < .05$

Intervention by Demographics. When Chi Square analysis was conducted on disaggregated data, significant differences in intervention in a sexual assault situation were not found related demographics. The data about intervention in sexual assault incidents did not differ significantly on year in college, residence, gender, race/ethnicity, or sexuality. While there were not significant differences between the intervention of men and women, significant differences were found in the intervention of women between active sexual assault situations and potential sexual assault situations. When comparing those who intervened with those who did not intervene because they did not feel safe doing so and those who did not intervene for other reasons, women made decisions about intervening differently (p = .040) in active sexual assault situations and situations that could lead to a sexual assault. In active sexual assault situations women were more likely to not intervene because they did not feel safe doing so, but in potential assault situations women who did not intervene were more likely to not intervene for a reason other than safety.

There were minimal significant differences found when exploring how demographic data related to intervention strategies utilized by participants. The only significant differences found when disaggregating intervention type data was related to gender. Women were more likely than men to involve others (recruited others to help diffuse the situation and told an authority figure responses combined) as an intervention strategy (p = .034). Similarly, men were more likely than women to confront the perpetrator, with marginal significance (p = 0.056). For additional data about intervention rates and intervention strategies utilized by participants in sexual assault situations disaggregated by demographic data, see Table 9.

Table 9

Intervention in Sexual Assault (Active and Potential Assaults Combined) Situations Disaggregated by Demographics

Participants	Intervened?		Intervention Strategies Utilized by Participants Who Intervened					
	Yes	No	Ask if victim needed help	Separated individuals involved	Created a distraction	Got others to diffuse situation	Told an authority figure	Confronted Perpetrator
Total (*n*)			33	25	13	28	6	11
% of people intervening	67%	33%	49%	37%	19%	41%	8%	6%
% of intervention strategies utilized	n/a	n/a	28%	22%	11%	24%	5%	9%
Year in College								
First Year (39%)	54%	46%	47%±	42%	21%	53%	5%	11%
Returning (61%)	73%	27%	49%±	35%	18%	37%	10%	18%
Residence								
On-Campus (65%)	64%	36%	42%	40%	21%	40%	8%	13%
Off-Campus (34%)	70%	30%	57%	33%	17%	43%	10%	20%
Gender								
Men (31%)	77%	23%	35%	45%	10%	25%	0%	30%
Women (68%)	62%	38%	52%	33%	24%	48%	11%	9%
Race/Ethnicity								
White Participants (65%)	66%	34%	48%	38%	23%	42%	8%	17%
Participants of Color (34%)	67%	33%	50%	33%	11%	44%	6%	17%
Sexuality								
Heterosexual (74%)	69%	31%	46%	33%	23%	42%	8%	15%
LGBTQIA+ (24%)	58%	42%	57%	50%	7%	43%	7%	21%

Note. Table only includes participants who observed an incident sexual assault (*n* = 102)

Values Held by Study Participants

The second research question, what values do the study participants hold; are there values that are more or less common than others, was explored through quantitative data analysis. Study participants identified the top five values they personally held, the top five values they believed their peers held, and the top five values they believe their institution promoted. These identified values were then categorized as affective, behavioral, or cognitive values using the Character Values Survey (CVS, Chen, 2005). Certain values identified by participants for themselves, their peers, and their institution were similar but others differed.

Study participants (n = 419) selected five top personal, peer, and institutional values. Compassionate was the most commonly selected personal value; it was selected by 47% of study participants as one of their top five values from the provided list of character values. The other most commonly selected personal values were honest (44%), empathetic (38%), trustworthy (35%), and respectful (35%). Participants most commonly identified respectful (31%) as a value held by peers. The other most commonly selected peer values were caring (29%), ambitious (25%), compassionate (23%), and honest (23%). The most commonly selected value participants identified as being promoted by their institution was faithful (39%). The other most commonly selected values participants believed their institution promoted were respectful (28%), responsible (26%), caring (25%), and open minded (24%). Of the most commonly selected values held by themselves, their peers, and promoted by their institution, there is overlap between the lists with respectful being a commonly selected value for all three. Participants commonly selected compassionate and honest

for both themselves and their peers, and participants selected caring regularly as a value of both their peers and their institution. Additional information about the frequency participants identified top values for themselves, their peers, and their institution is in Table 10.

Similar to how the most selected values for themselves their peers, and their institution had some overlap, the least selected values also had some overlap. Study participants were least likely to identify modest and obedient (1%, $n = 2$) as top personal values. Other rarely selected personal values included devout (1%), proud (1%), and chaste (2%), daring (2%), and tolerant (2%). Chaste (2%) was the value least likely to be selected by study participants as a peer value, followed by prudent (3%), introspective (3%), reflective (3%), patriotic (4%), and rational (4%). Patriotic was the value least likely to be selected by study participants as a value promoted by their institution, followed by daring (3%), rational (3%), patient (3%), and trusting (3%). There was no consistency in the least selected value between those selected as personal values, peer values, and institutional peer values, but there were multiple values that were least selected for two of the three groups. Chaste was an uncommon value for both individuals and peers; daring was an uncommon value for individuals and the institution; patriotic and rational were uncommonly selected values for both peers and the institution. Additional information about the frequency participants identified top values for themselves, their peers, and their institution is in Table 10.

Table 10

Top Five Values Identified by Participants (n = 419) for Themselves, Their Peers, and Promoted by Their Institution

Affective Values	Self	Peers	Institution	Behavioral Values	Self	Peers	Institution	Cognitive Values	Self	Peers	Institution
Caring	33%	29%[2]	25%[2]	Altruistic	7%	6%	11%	Ambitious	14%	25%[2]	20%
Chaste	2%[3]	2%[4]	11%	Civic Minded	3%	14%	19%	Committed	11%	20%	16%
Compassionate	47%[1]	23%[2]	23%	Compassionate	47%[1]	23%[2]	23%	Daring	2%[3]	4%	3%[3]
Courageous	12%	10%	12%	Cooperative	6%	18%	16%	Imaginative	6%	10%	7%
Devout	1%[3]	4%	16%	Empathetic	38%[2]	18%	17%	Introspective	4%	3%[3]	4%
Empathetic	38%[2]	18%	17%	Fair	13%	19%	9%	Open Minded	30%	41%	24%[2]
Faithful	9%	15%	39%[1]	Generous	5%	10%	11%	Optimistic	8%	10%	4%
Forgiving	10%	5%	6%	Honest	44%[2]	23%[2]	16%	Patriotic	2%	4%[3]	1%[4]
Generous	5%	10%	11%	Just	12%	11%	10%	Persevering	5%	6%	8%
Hopeful	3%	6%	6%	Open Minded	30%	41%	24%[2]	Proud	1%[3]	15%	16%
Loving	17%	13%	8%	Reflective	6%	3%[3]	13%	Prudent	2%	3%[3]	9%
Loyal	25%	7%	6%	Respectful	35%[2]	31%[1]	28%[2]	Purposeful	5%	11%	5%
Modest	1%[4]	4%	6%	Responsible	18%	21%	26%[2]	Rational	7%	4%[3]	3%[3]
Obedient	1%[4]	4%	9%	Tolerant	2%[3]	12%	7%	Reflective	6%	3%[3]	13%
Optimistic	8%	10%	4%	Trustworthy	35%[2]	13%	4%				
Patient	9%	4%	3%[3]								
Patriotic	2%	4%[3]	1%[4]								
Polite	2%	11%	5%								
Prudent	2%	3%[3]	9%								
Self-Controlled	3%	6%	5%								
Trusting	3%	5%	3%[3]								

Note. 1 = the top selected value for either individuals, peers, or the institution
2 = one of the five most commonly selected values for either individuals, peers, or the institution
3 = one of the five least commonly selected values for either individuals, peers, or the institution
4 = the least selected value for either individuals, peers, or the institution

Affective, Behavioral, and Cognitive Values

By utilizing the Character Values Survey (CVS, Chen, 2005), the 42 character values from which student participants selected were grouped into three categories of the type of value they represented: affective values, behavioral values, and cognitive values. After determining how many of the top five selected values were affective, behavioral, and cognitive in nature, the percent of the selected top five values within each category was determined. On average, study participants were most likely to select behavioral values and least likely to select cognitive values as top personal values, peer values, and values promoted by their institution. See Table 11 for additional information about the percentage of selected values with in each values category.

Table 11

Average Percent of Top Five Values Selected by Study Participants (n = 419) in each Values Category from the CVS (Chen, 2005)

Values Category	Personal Values		Peer Values		Institutional Values	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Affective Values	37%	.174	31%	.179	38%	.202
Behavioral Values	47%	.173	43%	.188	38%	.176
Cognitive Values	16%	.152	26%	.175	24%	.168

Study Participant Demographics and Values

Disaggregating values data by demographics allowed for greater understanding in the values and experiences of student participants within different subgroups. There

were more similarities between demographic groups when selecting personal values than when selecting peer or institutional values. There were many similarities between the top five personal values selected by study participants. Compassionate and honest were on the top five list for all subgroups of participants disaggregated by demographic data. Similarly, empathetic and trustworthy were on most of the top five lists of personal values; empathetic did not make the top five list for participants who were men or participants of color. All demographic subgroups selected open minded the most often as a top peer value. Similarly, ambitious, caring, honest, and respectful were top five values selected for peers by most subgroups. Faithful and respectful were in the top five values all participant groups believe their institution promoted. Similarly caring, open minded, and responsible were also values that appeared in the majority of the top five lists of selected institutional values. Additional information about top selected personal, peer, and institutional values can be found in Table 12.

Table 12

Five Most Commonly Selected Values (n = 419), Disaggregated by Demographic Data (in Alphabetical Order with the Most Commonly Selected Value Bolded)

		Top 5 Most Commonly Selected Values		
Participant Group		Personal Values	Peer Values	Institutional Values
Total		**Compassionate**	Ambitious	Caring
		Empathetic	Caring	**Faithful**
		Honest	Compassionate	Open Minded
		Respectful	Honest	Respectful
		Trustworthy	**Respectful**	Responsible
Year in College	First Year	Caring	Caring	Caring
		Compassionate	Compassionate	Compassionate
		Empathetic	Honest	**Faithful**
		Honest	**Open Minded**	Open Minded
		Trustworthy	Respectful	Respectful
				Responsible
	Returning	**Compassionate**	Ambitious	Caring
		Empathetic	Caring	Compassionate
		Honest	**Open Minded**	**Faithful**
		Respectful	Respectful	Respectful
		Trustworthy	Responsible	Responsible
Residence	On Campus	Caring	Ambitious	Caring
		Compassionate	Caring	**Faithful**
		Empathetic	Honest	Open Minded
		Honest	**Open Minded**	Respectful
		Trustworthy	Respectful	Responsible
	Off-Campus	Compassionate	Ambitious	Caring
		Honest	Caring	Compassionate
		Empathetic	Compassionate	**Faithful**
		Respectful	**Open Minded**	Proud
		Trustworthy	Respectful	Respectful
Gender	Men	Caring	Ambitious	Caring
		Compassionate	Caring	Civic Minded
		Honest	Fair	**Faithful**
		Respectful	**Open Minded**	Open Minded
		Trustworthy	Respectful	Respectful
	Women	**Compassionate**	Ambitious	Caring
		Empathetic	Caring	Compassionate
		Honest	Compassionate	**Faithful**
		Respectful	**Open Minded**	Respectful
		Trustworthy	Respectful	Responsible
Race/Ethnicity	White Participants	**Compassionate**	Ambitious	Caring
		Empathetic	Caring	**Faithful**
		Honest	Honest	Open Minded
		Respectful	**Open Minded**	Respectful
		Trustworthy	Respectful	Responsible
	Participants of Color	Caring	Compassionate	Caring
		Compassionate	Honest	Compassionate
		Honest	**Open Minded**	**Faithful**
		Open Minded	Respectful	Open Minded
		Trustworthy	Responsible	Respectful
Sexuality	Heterosexual	Caring	Ambitious	Caring
		Compassionate	Caring	**Faithful**
		Empathetic	Honest	Open Minded
		Honest	**Open Minded**	Respectful
		Respectful	Respectful	Responsible
	LGBTQIA+	Caring	Ambitious	Committed
		Compassionate	Caring	Devout
		Empathetic	Compassionate	**Faithful**
		Honest	Honest	Respectful
		Open Minded	**Open Minded**	Responsible
		Trustworthy		

Year in College. Disaggregating the top five values selected as personal values, peer values, and institutional values by year in college, first year students compared to sophomore, juniors, and seniors combined, referred to as *returning students*, revealed few statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) when two-sided Fisher's Exact tests were run. Fisher's Exact tests were done instead of Chi Square analysis because some values were so rarely selected that disaggregating the data by demographics resulted in fewer than five participants for certain categories. For personal values, the only statistically significant differences between first year and returning students were that first year students were more likely to select devout (3%, $n = 4$, $p = 0.022$) than returning student (0%, $n = 0$). Returning students were more likely to select faithful as a top personal value (12%, $n = 31$, $p = 0.008$) than first year students (4%, $n = 7$). No statistically significant differences were found between first year and returning students selection of top values held by their peers.

More statistically significant differences were found between first year and returning students perception of top values promoted by their institution. For top values promoted by the institution, first year students were more likely to select open minded (30%, $n = 48$, $p = .048$) compared to returning students (21%, $n = 54$). First year students were also more likely to select responsible (32%, $n = 51$, $p = .039$) as a top personal value compared to returning students (22%, $n = 57$). Additionally, first year students were more likely to select the institutional value trusting (6%, $n = 10$, $p = .022$) compared to returning students (2%, $n = 4$). For values promoted by their institution, returning students were more likely to select devout (19%, $n = 48$, $p = .027$) than first year students (11%, $n = 17$). Additionally, returning students were

more likely to select proud (20%, n = 52, p = .006) compared to first year students (10%, n = 16) as top values promoted by their institution.

Residence. Disaggregating the top five values selected as personal values, peer values, and institutional values by residence, students living on-campus compared to those living off-campus, revealed few statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) when two-sided Fisher's Exact tests were run. Fisher's Exact tests were done instead of Chi Square analysis because some values were so rarely selected that disaggregating the data by demographics resulted in fewer than five participants for certain categories. For personal values, the only statistically significant differences between students living on- and off-campus were that on-campus students were more likely to select empathetic (41%, n = 113, p = 0.043) compared to those living off-campus (31%, n = 44). Off-campus students were more likely to select just as a top personal value (17%, n = 24, p = 0.023) compared to those living on-campus (9%, n = 24). For top peer values, off-campus students were more to select altruistic as a top peer value (10%, n = 14, p = .028) compared to those living on-campus 4%, n = 11) and civic minded as a top peer value (20%, n = 28, p = .026) compared to those living on-campus (11%, n = 31). For institutional values, student participants living off-campus were more likely to select proud as a top value promoted by the institution (22%, n = 32, p = .018) compared to those living on-campus (13%, n = 36).

Gender. Disaggregating the top five values selected as personal values, peer values, and institutional values by gender, comparing men with women, revealed many statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) when two-sided Fisher's Exact tests were run. Fisher's Exact tests were done instead of Chi Square analysis because some

values were so rarely selected that disaggregating the data by demographics resulted in fewer than five participants for certain categories. Men and women had statistically significant ($p < .05$) differences in their selected top personal values for 10 of the 42 values. When selecting personal values, men were significantly were more likely than women to select ambitious (19%, $n = 25$, $p = .046$), compared to women (12%, $n = 33$); daring (4%, $n = 5$, $p = .033$, compared to women 1%, $n = 2$); introspective (8%, $n = 10$, $p = .011$), compared to women 2%, $n = 6$); patriotic (6%, $n = 8$, $p < .001$), compared to women (0%, $n = 0$); rational (17%, $n = 22$, $p < .001$), compared to women 3%, $n = 9$); reflective (9%, $n = 12$, $p = .014$), compared to women (3%, $n = 9$); and self-controlled (8%, $n = 10$, $p < .001$), compared to women (0%, $n = 1$). Furthermore, women selected personal values that also differed significantly from men. For instance, women were significantly more likely to select loving (21%, $n = 60$, $p = .008$), compared to men 10%, $n = 13$); loyal (30%, $n = 84$, $p = .007$), compared to men (17%, $n = 22$); and trustworthy (39%, $n = 111$, $p = .014$, compared to men (26%, $n = 34$) as top personal values.

When identifying top peer values, men were more likely than women to select chaste (5%, $n = 6$, $p = .029$), compared to women 1%, $n = 3$); obedient (8%, $n = 10$, $p = .008$), compared to women (2%, $n = 5$); and rational (6%, $n = 8$, $p = .042$), compared to women (2%, $n = 6$). Men were also more likely to choose daring (5%, $n = 7$, $p = .041$) as a top value promoted by the institution compared to women (1%, $n = 4$).

Race/Ethnicity. Disaggregating the top five values selected as personal values, peer values, and institutional values by race/ethnicity between White participants compared to participants of color, revealed few statistically significant differences

when two-sided Fisher's Exact tests were conducted. Fisher's Exact tests were done instead of Chi Square analysis because some values were so rarely selected that disaggregating the data by demographics resulted in fewer than five participants for certain categories. For personal values, the only statistically significant differences between participants based on race/ethnicity were that participants of color were more likely to select ambitious as a top personal value (20%, $n = 28$, $p = 0.026$) compared to White participants (11%, $n = 31$). Additionally, White participants were more likely to select responsible (22%, $n = 59$, $p = 0.016$) as a top personal value than participants of color (12%, $n = 17$). No statistically significant differences were found based on race/ethnicity in selection of top values held by their peers. White participants were more likely to identify fair as a top value promoted by their institution (12%, $n = 32$, $p = .006$) compared with participants of color (4%, $n = 5$).

Sexuality. Disaggregating the top five values selected as personal values, peer values, and institutional values by sexuality, student participants identifying as heterosexual compared to those identifying as members of the LGBTQIA+ community, revealed some statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) when two-sided Fisher's Exact tests were conducted. To protect participant anonymity, HEDS combined all sexuality data into the two categories of *heterosexual* and *not heterosexual*, in this paper these two subgroups of participants are referred to as *heterosexual* and *members of the LGBTQIA+ community*, which contains survey responses of asexual, bisexual, gay, lesbian, pansexual, queer, questioning, and fill in the blank responses). Fisher's Exact tests were done instead of Chi Square analysis

because some values were so rarely selected that disaggregating the data by demographics resulted in five or fewer participants for certain categories.

For personal values, students who identified as members of the LQBTQIA+ community were more likely to select empathetic (47%, $n = 48$, $p = 0.034$), compared to those who identified as heterosexual (34%, $n = 107$). Similarly, students who identified as members of the LGBTQIA+ community were more likely to select imaginative (10%, $n = 10$, $p = 0.046$) compared to those who identified as heterosexual (4%, $n = 13$) as a top personal value. For peer values, participants who identified as members of the LGBTQIA+ community were more likely to select devout (8%, $n = 8$, $p = .043$) compared to those who identified as heterosexual (3%, $n = 9$). Participants who identified as heterosexual were more likely to select respectful (34%, $n = 106$, $p = .019$) compared to those who identified as members of the LGBTQIA+ community (21%, $n = 22$) as a top value of their peers.

For values promoted by the institution, participants who identified as members of the LGBTQIA+ community were more likely to select chaste (18%, $n = 19$, $p = .005$) compared to those who identified as heterosexual (8%, $n = 25$); similarly, participants who identified as members of the LGBTQIA+ community were more likely to select devout as an institutional value (23%, $n = 24$, $p = .019$) compared to those who identified as heterosexual (13%, $n = 41$). Additionally, participants who identified as heterosexual were more likely to select open minded as a top institutional value (28%, $n = 87$, $p = .003$) compared to those who identified as members of the LGBTQIA+ community (14%, $n = 14$).

Character Aspects

When utilizing the Character Values Survey (CVS, Chen, 2005) to categorize participants' selected personal, peer, and institutional values into the categories based on the aspects of character - affective, behavioral, and cognitive, few differences were found related to demographics. Note that certain values were included in two categories, while most values were assigned to a single category. Each values category had a different number of values with in it; affective had 21, behavioral had 15, and cognitive had 14; accounting for the different number of values per category did not affect the relationships between values categories and demographic data. Women (49%) were more likely than men (43%) to select personal values that were behavioral ($t(215.577) = -2.834$, $p = .005$). Men (21%) were more likely than women (14%) to have selected personal values that were cognitive values ($t(412) = 4.715$, $p < .001$). Participants who identified as members of the LGBTQIA+ community (43%) were more likely than those who identified as heterosexual (36%) to select institutional values that were affective ($t(149.659) = -2.619$, $p = .010$). Participants who identified as heterosexual (40%) were more likely than those who identified as members of the LGBTQIA+ community (35%) to select institutional values that were behavioral ($t(412) = 2.238$, $p = .026$).

Relationship Between Bystander Intervention and Values in Study Participants

The third research question, what do the data indicate about the relationship between values and bystander behavior, was explored through quantitative data analysis. The values of study participants and values of their peers and institution

selected by study participants were compared to their bystander intervention data to determine if there was a relationship between values and intervention.

Bystander Intervention and Personal Values

Data about if study participants intervened in situations of sexual assault (active and potential assaults combined) was compared to the character values participants selected as top personal values For each of the 42 character values included in the survey, student participants who selected that value were compared using Fisher's Exact test to those who did not select that value to determine if there were differences in personal value selection between those who intervened in a sexual assault situation and those who did not. The only significant differences found between personal character values and bystander intervention was for the values of compassionate and optimistic. The personal value of compassionate was related to greater bystander intervention behavior, participants who selected compassionate (37 intervened) as a top personal value were more likely (p = .039) than those who did not select compassionate (31 intervened) as a top value to intervene in a sexual assault incident. The personal value of optimistic was related to less bystander intervention behavior, participants who selected optimistic (1 intervened) as a top value were less likely (p = .015) than those who did not select optimistic (67 intervened) as a top value to intervene in a sexual assault incident. Optimistic was not being a commonly selected value, only 6 participants who observed an incident of sexual assault selected optimistic as a top value, 8% of all study participants selected optimistic as a top value. Table 13 contains additional information about the intervention behavior of student participants who selected each of the 42 personal character values.

Table 13

Intervention and Selection of Top Personal Values of Participants Who Observed an Incident of Sexual Assault (n = 102)

Affective Values	Selected Value			Did Not Select Value		Behavioral Values	Selected Value			Did Not Select Value		Cognitive Values	Selected Value			Did Not Select Value	
		Intervened?		Intervened?				Intervened?		Intervened?				Intervened?		Intervened?	
	n	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)		*n*	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)		*n*	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)
Caring	36	58%	42%	71%	29%	Altruistic	6	83%	17%	66%	34%	Ambitious	13	69%	31%	66%	34%
Chaste	2	50%	50%	67%	33%	Civic Minded	3	100%	0%	66%	34%	Committed	12	67%	33%	67%	33%
Compassionate*	48	77%	23%	57%	43%	Compassionate*	48	77%	23%	57%	43%	Daring	2	100%	0%	66%	34%
Courageous	22	64%	36%	68%	32%	Cooperative	6	67%	33%	67%	33%	Imaginative	5	60%	40%	67%	33%
Devout	1	100%	0%	66%	34%	Empathetic	38	68%	32%	66%	34%	Introspective	2	50%	50%	67%	33%
Empathetic	38	68%	32%	66%	34%	Fair	6	100%	0%	65%	35%	Open Minded	26	81%	19%	62%	38%
Faithful	13	69%	31%	66%	34%	Generous	4	75%	25%	66%	34%	Optimistic*	6	17%	83%	70%	30%
Forgiving	13	69%	31%	66%	34%	Honest	40	65%	35%	65%	35%	Patriotic	4	75%	25%	66%	34%
Generous	4	75%	25%	66%	34%	Just	16	69%	31%	66%	34%	Persevering	4	75%	25%	66%	34%
Hopeful	3	67%	33%	67%	33%	Open Minded	26	81%	19%	62%	38%	Proud	2	100%	0%	66%	34%
Loving	28	61%	39%	69%	31%	Reflective	7	71%	29%	66%	34%	Prudent	1	100%	0%	66%	34%
Loyal	25	60%	40%	69%	31%	Respectful	31	58%	42%	70%	20%	Purposeful	8	75%	25%	66%	34%
Modest	1	100%	0%	66%	34%	Responsible	11	46%	55%	69%	31%	Rational	7	86%	14%	65%	35%
Obedient	1	0%	100%	67%	34%	Tolerant	0	n/a	n/a	67%	33%	Reflective	7	71%	29%	66%	34%
Optimistic*	6	17%	83%	70%	30%	Trustworthy	36	64%	36%	68%	32%						
Patient	9	56%	44%	68%	32%												
Patriotic	4	75%	25%	66%	34%												
Polite	3	33%	67%	68%	32%												
Prudent	1	100%	0%	66%	34%												
Self-Controlled	3	67%	33%	67%	33%												
Trusting	6	67%	33%	67%	33%												

Note. * $p < .05$

Bystander Intervention and Perception of Peer Values

Data about if study participants intervened in situations of sexual assault (active and potential assaults combined) was compared to the character values participants selected as top values for their peers. For each of the 42 character values included in the survey, student participants who selected that value were compared using Fisher's Exact test to those who did not select that value to determine if there were differences in peer value selection between those who intervened in a sexual assault situation and those who did not. Significant differences found between perception of peer character values and bystander intervention were found for the values of committed, respectful, and responsible. Student participants who identified committed as a top peer value were significantly more likely to intervene in a sexual assault incident (n = 20, 20%) than those who did not select committed (n = 48; p = .009). Similarly, student participants who identified responsible as a top peer value (n = 15, 21%) were significantly more likely to intervene than those who did not select responsible as a top value (n = 57; p = .049). Student participants who identified respectful as a top peer value (n = 9) were significantly less likely to intervene in a sexual assault incident than those who did not select respectful (n = 59; p = .033). Table 14 contains additional information about the intervention behavior of student participants who selected each of the 42 peer character values.

Table 14

Intervention and Selection of Top Values Held by Peers of Participants Who Observed an Incident of Sexual Assault (n = 102)

Affective Values	Selected Value			Did Not Select Value		Behavioral Values	Selected Value			Did Not Select Value		Cognitive Values	Selected Value			Did Not Select Value	
		Intervened?		Intervened?				Intervened?		Intervened?				Intervened?		Intervened?	
	n	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)		*n*	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)		*n*	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)
Caring	27	67%	33%	67%	33%	Altruistic	3	67%	33%	67%	33%	Ambitious	29	76%	24%	63%	37%
Chaste	1	100%	0%	66%	34%	Civic Minded	15	80%	20%	64%	36%	Committed*	22	91%	9%	60%	40%
Compassionate	25	68%	32%	66%	34%	Compassionate	25	68%	32%	66%	34%	Daring	2	50%	50%	67%	33%
Courageous	11	55%	46%	68%	32%	Cooperative	16	75%	25%	65%	35%	Imaginative	14	50%	50%	69%	31%
Devout	5	80%	20%	66%	34%	Empathetic	14	57%	43%	68%	32%	Introspective	8	75%	25%	66%	34%
Empathetic	14	57%	43%	68%	32%	Fair	21	71%	29%	65%	35%	Open Minded	49	71%	29%	62%	38%
Faithful	18	67%	33%	67%	33%	Generous	7	71%	29%	66%	34%	Optimistic	11	55%	46%	68%	32%
Forgiving	4	25%	75%	68%	32%	Honest	23	65%	35%	67%	33%	Patriotic	4	75%	25%	66%	34%
Generous	7	71%	29%	66%	34%	Just	13	54%	46%	69%	32%	Persevering	9	78%	22%	66%	34%
Hopeful	5	100%	0%	65%	35%	Open Minded	49	71%	29%	62%	38%	Proud	16	56%	44%	69%	31%
Loving	18	56%	44%	69%	31%	Reflective	2	0%	100%	68%	32%	Prudent	3	33%	67%	68%	32%
Loyal	7	86%	14%	65%	35%	Respectful*	20	45%	55%	72%	28%	Purposeful	3	100%	0%	66%	34%
Modest	5	60%	40%	67%	33%	Responsible*	17	88%	12%	62%	38%	Rational	6	50%	50%	68%	32%
Obedient	7	71%	29%	66%	34%	Tolerant	13	62%	39%	67%	33%	Reflective	2	0%	100%	68%	32%
Optimistic	11	55%	46%	68%	32%	Trustworthy	10	60%	40%	67%	33%						
Patient	3	33%	67%	68%	32%												
Patriotic	4	75%	25%	66%	34%												
Polite	13	46%	54%	70%	30%												
Prudent	3	33%	67%	68%	32%												
Self-Controlled	8	63%	38%	67%	33%												
Trusting	3	100%	0%	66%	34%												

Note. * $p < .05$

Bystander Intervention and Perception of Institutional Values

Data about if study participants intervened in situations of sexual assault (active and potential assaults combined) was compared to the character values participants selected as top values they believe their institution promoted. For each of the 42 character values included in the survey, student participants who selected that value were compared using Fisher's Exact test to those who did not select that value to determine if there were differences in institutional values selection between those who intervened in a sexual assault situation and those who did not. There were significant differences found between perception of institutional character values and bystander intervention for the values of devout and persevering. Student participants who identified devout as a top value promoted by their institution (n = 16, 16%) were significantly more likely to intervene in a sexual assault incident than those who did not select devout as a top value (n = 52; p = .030). Student participants who identified persevering as a top value promoted by their institution (n = 9, 8%) were significantly more likely to intervene than those who did not select persevering as a top value (n = 59; p = .027). Table 15 contains additional information about the intervention behavior of student participants who selected each of the 42 institutional character values.

Table 15

Intervention and Selection of Top Values Promoted by the Institution of Participants Who Observed an Incident of Sexual Assault (n = 102)

Affective Values	Selected Value			Did Not Select Value		Behavioral Values	Selected Value			Did Not Select Value		Cognitive Values	Selected Value			Did Not Select Value	
		Intervened?		Intervened?				Intervened?		Intervened?				Intervened?		Intervened?	
	n	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)		*n*	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)		*n*	Yes (%)	No (%)	Yes (%)	No (%)
Caring	36	58%	42%	71%	29%	Altruistic	6	83%	17%	66%	34%	Ambitious	13	69%	31%	66%	34%
Chaste	2	50%	50%	67%	33%	Civic Minded	3	100%	0%	66%	34%	Committed	12	67%	33%	67%	33%
Compassionate*	48	77%	23%	57%	43%	Compassionate*	48	77%	23%	57%	43%	Daring	2	100%	0%	66%	34%
Courageous	22	64%	36%	68%	32%	Cooperative	6	67%	33%	67%	33%	Imaginative	5	60%	40%	67%	33%
Devout	1	100%	0%	66%	34%	Empathetic	38	68%	32%	66%	34%	Introspective	2	50%	50%	67%	33%
Empathetic	38	68%	32%	66%	34%	Fair	6	100%	0%	65%	35%	Open Minded	26	81%	19%	62%	38%
Faithful	13	69%	31%	66%	34%	Generous	4	75%	25%	66%	34%	Optimistic*	6	17%	83%	70%	30%
Forgiving	13	69%	31%	66%	34%	Honest	40	65%	35%	65%	35%	Patriotic	4	75%	25%	66%	34%
Generous	4	75%	25%	66%	34%	Just	16	69%	31%	66%	34%	Persevering	4	75%	25%	66%	34%
Hopeful	3	67%	33%	67%	33%	Open Minded	26	81%	19%	62%	38%	Proud	2	100%	0%	66%	34%
Loving	28	61%	39%	69%	31%	Reflective	7	71%	29%	66%	34%	Prudent	1	100%	0%	66%	34%
Loyal	25	60%	40%	69%	31%	Respectful	31	58%	42%	70%	20%	Purposeful	8	75%	25%	66%	34%
Modest	1	100%	0%	66%	34%	Responsible	11	46%	55%	69%	31%	Rational	7	86%	14%	65%	35%
Obedient	1	0%	100%	67%	34%	Tolerant	0	n/a	n/a	67%	33%	Reflective	7	71%	29%	66%	34%
Optimistic*	6	17%	83%	70%	30%	Trustworthy	36	64%	36%	68%	32%						
Patient	9	56%	44%	68%	32%												
Patriotic	4	75%	25%	66%	34%												
Polite	3	33%	67%	68%	32%												
Prudent	1	100%	0%	66%	34%												
Self-Controlled	3	67%	33%	67%	33%												
Trusting	6	67%	33%	67%	33%												

Note. * $p < .05$

Summary

This chapter presented the results of quantitative data analysis of an existing data set gathered for the participating university by the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate survey (2019), that included supplemental questions provided by the participating university. Most participants who witnessed a sexual assault intervened to help the victim. Intervention rates and number of intervention strategies did not differ significantly between active and potential sexual assault situations but the reasons participants did not intervene differed between the types of incidents. Asking if the victim needed help was the most common intervention strategy in both types of incidents. The most commonly selected personal value was compassionate, the top peer value was respectful, and the top value promoted by the institution was faithful. Character values which were behavioral in nature were the most commonly selected for personal values, peer values, and institutional values. The greatest significant differences were found when comparing personal values disaggregated by gender. Greater intervention was associated with the personal value of compassionate, the peer values of committed and/or responsible, and the institutional values of devout and/or persevering. Less intervention was associated with the personal value of optimistic and the peer value of respectful. The final chapter contains an interpretation of these findings, including limitations and recommendations for future study and application.

Chapter 5: Discussion

This quantitative study explored college student bystander behavior, values, and the relationship between values and bystander intervention. Survey data from a small, private, religiously affiliated university on the West Coast of the U.S. was analyzed to determine if there was a relationship between college student values and/or student perception of their community's values and their likelihood to intervene in an incident of sexual assault. Several key findings of this study with interpretation will be discussed in this chapter. Additionally, a description of the limitations of this study, recommendations for future research, and implications for practice, and a conclusion are also included in this chapter.

Interpretation of Findings

The following section is organized by research question. When relevant, this section includes where the findings confirm, contradict, or extend knowledge previously found in the literature. Additionally, recommendations for future research are included.

Research Question 1

How common is bystander intervention in the study participants; are there types of intervention behavior that are more or less common than others?

The previous chapter established that most (64%) study participants had not reported observing an incident of active or potential sexual assault but that the

majority (67%) of those who saw an incident involving active or potential sexual assault intervened to help the victim. While the percentage of student participants who intervened in a sexual assault incident was almost identical for active (66%) and potential (67%) assaults, the reasons participants gave for not intervening differed for the two types of incidents.

Observation of a sexual assault incident. Another interesting finding was that only 24% (n = 102) of study participants had observed an incident of sexual assault. More student participants had observed an incident of potential sexual assault (17%, n = 67) than an active sexual assault (8%, n = 35). There are multiple possible causes for this difference in observation. The greater observation of potential sexual assaults may indicate that students are intervening before potential incidents escalate to active assaults and are preventing sexual assaults from occurring. Alternatively, potential sexual assaults may include more publicly visible behavior than active sexual assaults. Finally, it is possible that student participants were overly aware of risk and identifying innocuous situations as those which could lead to a sexual assault.

Additionally, when observation data were disaggregated by year in college, residence, gender, race/ethnicity, and sexuality, the only statistically significant differences were related to observation of potential sexual assault when year in college (p = .033) and race/ethnicity were explored (p = .038). First year students were more likely to report not seeing an incident of potential sexual assault than returning students were, suggesting that returning students were exposed to more incidents of potential assault, possibly related to their greater presence at off-campus social events or greater knowledge about and/or awareness of situations that can escalate to a sexual

assault. Prior research has found that prior participation in sexual assault prevention education (Murphy, 2014) and knowledge of campus policies and procedures (Toews et al., 2020; Zavadil, 2015) increases someone's willingness to help and bystander intervention behavior (Murphy, 2014); perhaps being more ready to intervene makes someone more aware of situation that require intervention. Additionally, participants of color were more likely to report not seeing an incident of potential sexual assault than White participants. Prior research has found that bystanders were more likely to assist people of their same race (Heggen, 2017; Piliavin et al., 1969); it is possible that participants were more aware of the needs of peers of their same race and that the participating university being a predominantly White institution resulted in more White participants noticing incidents in which their peers needed help. Prior research has also found that students of color expresses less intention to intervene (Zavadil, 2015), a student's ability to intervene is impacted by perceptions of racism and microaggressions (McMahon et al., 2020), and that Black college men are concerned about risk to themselves due to their race when considering intervening as pro-social bystanders (Hammock et al., 2020); perhaps barriers to intervention make someone less likely aware of incidents in need of intervention. These findings suggest that participants are aware of behaviors and situations that could lead to sexual assault contributing to a safer campus community and students who face barriers to intervention may be less aware of situations that require intervention.

Intervention in a sexual assault. Most (67%, $n = 68$) of the student participants who observed an incident of sexual assault intervened to help the victim; this finding is consistent with prior research (Yule & Grych, 2020). Regardless of the

type of sexual assault incident (active or potential), the average number of intervention strategies utilized was almost identical. For those who intervened, the most common intervention strategy was asking the victim if they needed help. It is possible that the close, relational community of a small university resulted in students feeling a responsibility to others in their community and/or a comfort approaching someone to see if help was needed. Only a few students (4%, $n = 4$) who observed an incident of active or potential sexual assault stated that not knowing how to intervene prevented them from helping. All incoming students at the participating university receive an introduction to the Green Dot, etc. bystander intervention training program at their orientation, which may have led to the high level of student efficacy found in this study and consistent with prior study of the Green Dot program (Coker et al., 2011). The Green Dot program at the participating university also may have contributed to the majority of participants who observed an incident of sexual assault intervening to help, prior research has found that students who attended a Green Dot program reported more bystander behavior than students who did not attend the program (Coker et al., 2011).

Additionally, the way participants intervened to help differed by gender. Women were more likely than men to get others involved to help ($p = .034$) and men were more likely than women to directly confront the perpetrator ($p = .056$). These differences in intervention by gender are consistent with previous findings in which women were found to be more likely than men to report an incident to the authorities (Nicksa, 2014; Yule & Grych, 2020) and that men were more likely to intervene in physical arguments (Brewster & Tucker, 2016).

While most students intervened when they observed an incident of sexual assault, the reasons participants who did not intervene is noteworthy. Student participants behaved differently in situations of active and potential sexual assaults. In situations that could lead to a sexual assault, some participants simply chose not to intervene, but in situations of active assault, participants who did not intervene always had a reason not to intervene. Additionally, no students who observed an active assault chose not to intervene because they were uncomfortable while being uncomfortable was a reason some participants gave for not intervening in a potential assault. Based on these differences, student participants were likely assessing imminent risk when determining intervention behaviors. When someone was actively being harmed, student participants felt a greater need to intervene and only did not intervene when they did not feel safe or capable to do so. This finding aligns with the Cost-Reward Model (Piliavin et al., 1969, 1975) which states that the bystanders are comparing the emotional costs and benefits of intervening and the emotional costs and benefits of not intervening to select the action with the greatest benefit and lowest cost. These findings also align with the Action Coils Model (Banyard, 2015), which states that many factors including cost/benefit analysis and context factor into bystander behavior. Based on these findings, perhaps it is harder to see someone suffering than it is to envision a time in the future where they might suffer, and the emotional reaction of seeing someone actively in need of help motivates bystanders to put their potential discomfort and ambivalence aside and intervene to help. Prior research has found that people act to protect and defend their values, are more likely to act when there are contextual triggers of a value not being met (van Zomeren et al., 2018) and that values

are linked to emotion (Schwartz, 1992, 2006); it's likely that potential sexual assault situations did not have the same emotional reaction and did not register as a violation of values the same way that active assault situations did. These findings suggest that the bystander education students at the participating university receive is successful in reducing rates of violence.

Summary of Research Question 1. While most participants did not observe an incident of sexual assault, the majority of those who did observe an incident intervened to help. Further research may help explain whether the differences in observation of potential sexual assaults between first year and returning students and between White students and students of color found in this study were the result of greater exposure to incidents of potential sexual assault or greater awareness of these situations and their risks. Student participants responded differently to incidents of active sexual assault and potential sexual assault. Student participants also responded differently based on their gender. Further research may also provide greater insight into the nuances of how the gender of bystanders relates to their intervention behavior. The findings of this study align with those of prior studies related to gender and intervention.

Research Question 2

What values do the study participants hold; are there values that are more or less common than others?

All of the 42 values were selected at least once by some participants as personal, peer, or institutional values, but there were values that were more commonly

selected than others. Many of the values selected as personal, peer, and institutional values were values related to community.

Commonly selected values. The character value most often selected as a top personal value was compassionate (47%), as a top peer value was respectful (31%), and as a top value promoted by the institution was faithful (39%). Some values, such as caring, compassionate, honest, and respectful, were commonly selected as top values for multiple groups (personal, peer, and/or institutional). Most of the values regularly selected by participants were pro-social, community focused values such as compassionate, honest, and respectful. Prior research (Chen, 2005) found that faith-based institutions, like the participating university, commonly promoted affective values, such as faithful and devout.

The heavy selection of community focused values was not surprising due to the participating university's cultural focus on relationships and the value of community. However, it is noteworthy that a previous study (Brown, 2007) of student values at a large Research I institution found that student participants did not tend to select values focused on others as top values. These differences may be due to the timing of the two studies; in the 14 years between the two data collections, there has been a greater emphasis on pro-social relationships and care for others in K-12 education (Mears et al., 2017). It is also possible that the smaller size of the participating university (approximately 4,000 vs over 30,000 undergraduate students) and/or the university's focus on relationships and community resulted in students holding more pro-social, community focused values. Finally, it is possible that a different type of student chooses to attend a small-private, religiously affiliated

institution on the West Coast than a large, public, Research I institution in the Southeast.

An additional finding was that participants were more likely to select behavioral values than affective or cognitive values as personal, peer, and institutional values. Behavioral values are values associated with doing rather than feeling or thinking; it is possible that participants were more likely to recognize behavioral values as top values due to the more active nature of them. It is also possible that participants had internalized cultural messages related to action demonstrating beliefs and values. A prior study (Brown, 2007) similarly found that behavioral values were commonly chosen by participants. The common selection of pro-social, community-focused values that were behavioral in nature suggests that the participating university community in one in which members take an active role in caring for and about each other.

Demographic differences. When values data were disaggregated by demographics, there were many similarities between highly selected values. The most significant differences were found when comparing the personal values of men and women. Compared to women, men tended to have personal values more focused on success, like ambitious ($p = .046$) and daring ($p = .033$), and cognition or emotional regulation, like introspective ($p = .011$), rational ($p < .001$), reflective ($p = .014$), and self-controlled ($p < .001$) and women had personal values more focused on relationships, like loving ($p = .008$), loyal ($p = .007$), and trustworthy ($p = .014$). Additional research exploring the values of participants of different ages and in different settings would provide greater insight into whether this is a difference

between college students of different genders, between 18 to 22-year-old men and women, or between all men/boys and women/girls.

The greatest differences found for values attributed to their community (peer or institution) by participants when values data were disaggregated by demographic data were related to year in college and sexuality. All these significant differences related to year in college were for values participants selected as values promoted by their institution. First year students were more likely to select open minded (p = .048), responsible (p = .009), and trusting (p = .022) while returning students were more likely to select devout (p = .027) and proud (p = .006) as institutional values. It is unclear if these differences in the perception of values promoted by the institution were related to students' perception of institutional values changing over time or if first year students received different messages than returning students about institutional values, possibly as a result of their recent orientation to the institution.

Like year in college, sexuality of participants often resulted in differences in perception of community (peer and institutional) values. Community value differences based on the sexuality of participants were split between significant differences in values attributed to peers and significant differences of values attributed to the institution. Participants who identified as members of the LGBTQIA+ community were more likely to select devout as a peer (p = .043) value and more likely to select chaste (p = .005) and devout (p = .019) as institutional values while participants who identified as heterosexual were more likely to select respectful (p = .019) as a peer value and open minded (p = .003) as a value promoted by their institution. It is unclear if these differences in perception of community values were due to participants'

experiences on campus or due to feelings of marginalization due to the perceived conflict between their sexuality and the religious identity of their institution. These findings appear to confirm Mead's (1934) belief that society, shapes individuals and social behavior through the acceptance of shared value These findings suggest that students are influenced by the values of their community, confirming Mead's (1934) belief that society, shapes individuals and social behavior through the acceptance of shared value. As cultural rules, values, and expectations influence individuals and social behavior (Mead, 1934), these findings suggest an opportunity for campus communities to instill pro-social values in their students.

Summary of Research Question 2. The values most commonly selected by study participants as personal, peer, and institutional values tended to focus on relationships and community. This finding may be due to the focus on relationships and community at the participating university or the type of student who chooses to attend the participating university. Additional research about values at other institutions of higher education and at the participating institution may provide greater insight into the cause of this finding. The greatest differences between subgroups of participants based on demographics data were for personal values disaggregated by gender; men and women had significant differences in their selection of 24% of the personal values. The men and women in this study not only had significantly different personal values, but these values differed in theme with men being more likely to select values related to achievement and regulation and women being more likely to select values related to relationships. Additional research of values differences with different aged participants and with a larger study population may provide greater

insight into these observed differences between the values of men and women college students. As the ordering of survey response options and other survey design elements have been found to influence responses (i.e. Bowman & Schuldt, 2014), utilizing randomly ordered character values with a larger study population may provide greater clarity that the values selected were not selected due to their position in the list of options and may help explain differences in selection of similar values.

Research Question 3

What do the data indicate about the relationship between values and bystander behavior?

Relationships were found between the selection of certain character values by study participants and their intervention in incidents of college sexual assault. Some values are associated with greater intervention rates and some with lesser intervention rates.

Personal values and intervention. Statistically significant differences were found between participants who selected certain character values as top personal values and their intervention. Participants who selected compassionate as a top personal value were more likely (p = .039) than participants who did not identify compassionate as a top value to intervene to help the victim in a sexual assault situation (active and potential sexual assault situations combined). Similar significant differences for the relationship between intervention and values were not found for values similar to compassionate, like caring (p = .196) or empathetic (p = .830). Unlike caring, which is characterized as an affective value, compassionate and empathetic are characterized as both affective and behavioral values. Valuing

compassion seems to motivate college student participants to intervene to help others. Additional research is needed to better understand how students' selection of compassionate and similar values like caring and empathetic differ to gain greater insight into how the value of compassionate, but not caring or empathetic, is related to bystander intervention. Additional research would also provide insight into whether the value of compassionate is related to bystander intervention in college sexual assault situations specifically or if compassion is instead more generally related to pro-social helping behavior as some prior studies (Lim & DeSteno, 2016; Piff et al., 2010) suggest.

Participants who selected optimistic as a top personal value were less likely (p = .015) than students who did not select optimistic as a top personal value to intervene to help the victim in a sexual assault situation. It appears that participants who value optimism were more likely to believe that the situation would be resolved without their intervention. Further research about whether optimistic participants believe that potential sexual assaults would not progress to active assault, if they believe the parties involved would successfully resolve the situation without intervention, or if they believe other bystanders would intervene may provide meaningful insight into why participants who selected optimistic as a personal value intervened less. Additional research would also provide insight into whether the value of optimistic is related to a lack of bystander intervention in college sexual assault situations specifically or if it is also related to a lack of bystander intervention in other incidents in which someone needs help. These findings suggest that incorporating values into

bystander intervention trainings may increase pro-social behavior and reduce campus violence.

Peer Values and Intervention. Statistically significant differences were found between participants who selected certain character values as top peer values and their intervention. Participants were more likely to intervene in an incident of sexual assault if they selected committed (p = .009) or responsible (p = .049) as top values for their peers compared to participants who did not select these peer values. It is possible that when participants attributed the value of committed to their peers, they felt a greater need to intervene to prevent the disruption that sexual violence would have on a peer's education. It is possible that participants who viewed their peers as responsible were more likely to consider their peers deserving of intervention. Research (Pagliaro et al., 2018) has found that people are less likely to help those who they perceive as less moral or who they believe have responsibility for the situation in which help is needed. It is possible that participants who viewed their peers as more responsible believe that the peer's actions did not contribute their sexual assault situation and therefore the peer is more deserving of the participant's intervention.

Participants were less likely to intervene in an incident of sexual assault if they selected respectful (p = .033) as a top value for their peers compared to participants who did not select this peer value. It is possible that when participants viewed their peers as respectful, they were less likely to be concerned by incidents of sexual assault they witnessed because they believed the incident would not escalate. The Cost Reward Model (Piliavin et al., 1969, 1975) proposes that bystanders intervene because of their emotional reaction and choose to intervene when intervening causes a more

positive or less negative emotional response than not intervening causes. It is possible the when participants viewed their peers as respectful, the negative emotional response related to not intervening was lessened because they believed that the incident would not escalate to harm, resulting in less intervention. These findings suggest that community values and/or how individuals perceive others in their community may influence pro-social behavior.

Summary of Research Question 3. Significant relationships were found between intervention and some personal and/or peer values. Additional research that further explores the complexities of the sexual assault incidents participants observed and the factors related to participant intervention may provide greater insight into the relationships found between values and intervention. Furthermore, additional research of college student values may shed light on why certain values tended to be selected more by students who intervened or did not intervene in incidents of sexual assault. Prior studies have not specifically explored the relationship between values and bystander intervention. However, previous bystander intervention research has found that the factors related to bystander intervention are complex (i.e. Banyard, 2015) and that values can lead to action (van Zomeren et al., 2018).

Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations to this study that must be addressed. One university was used as the setting for this study. Expanding the study to a variety of higher education institutions, ideally with different mission statements, in different geographic locations, and of different sizes would provide greater insight into the universality of results.

While the entire population of degree-seeking undergraduate students enrolled at the participating university at the time of the study were invited to complete the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey (2019) including additional questions provided by the participating university, only 19% of the students completed the survey. This response rate is consistent with the national response rate (21%) of the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate survey and response rates (National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) had a response rate of 21% for first year students and 24% for fourth year students at the participating university during the 2017-2018 academic year and the HEDS Diversity and Equity Campus Climate Survey had a 19% response rate from students at the participating university during the 2018-2019 academic year) for other recent surveys of the study body at the participating university in recent years. Emailing survey invitations allowed easy access to the student population but likely resulted in students with stronger feelings related to campus sexual assault competing the survey at higher rates than the general student population (Muijs, 2011). The survey asked students to self-report their experiences. Self-reporting may result in erroneous data based on inaccuracies in memory and/or individuals choosing what they wish to disclose (Muijs, 2011). Although the survey was a self-report instrument, which assumes participants answered questions honestly, there is still room for inaccurate reporting by participants. However, the strong validity and reliability of both the HEDS (2019) survey and the CEVPI (Chen, 2005) indicate the even with inherent imperfections in self-reported data that the data collected and results can be trusted.

In addition to the limitations created by convenience sampling and electronic data collection, limitations exist related to the timing of the data collection. Data were collected during the spring of 2020. In the spring of 2020, COVID-19 was spreading and, as a result, there was much news and disruption associated with the pandemic. While the survey was open to students, the participating university transitioned to remote instruction and most students relocated back to their permanent addresses. News of the pandemic and the disruptions associated with the move to remote instruction and relocation likely impacted student focus and perception during the data collection period; as such, data collected earlier in the data collection period may differ from data collected later.

Additionally, most study participants had not observed an incident of sexual assault. With only 102 study participants who had observed an incident of active or potential sexual assault, certain data analyses were limited due to the small sample size. This small sample size also reduced the generalizability of the findings, resulted in barriers to data analysis and may have resulted in type 2 errors. Many subgroups of the 102 participants who had observed an incident of sexual assault contained fewer than 5 participants, making Chi Square analysis ineffective. Much of the data were able to be analyzed using Fisher's Exact test with binary variables but additional analysis of more complex variables with few participants in each subgroup was not possible due to the inability to manually run Fisher's Exact test in SPSS (Fisher's test runs automatically in SPSS for two by two cross tabs).

Finally, it was noticed that an error was made in the creation of the supplemental questions related to values that may result in irregularities in the data

collection and analysis. The values related questions that were added to the survey utilized a list of character values from the CEVPI (Chen, 2005). The CEVPI (Chen, 2005) utilizes a list of 44 character values, and yet the supplemental questions added by the participating university to the HEDS Sexual Assault Campus Climate Survey contained only 42 of these 44 character values. The character values of humble and independent were not included in the supplemental questions as possible character values for students to select as top values for themselves, their peers, or their institution. A prior data collection utilizing the CEVPI used in past studies of college student values (Brown, 2007; Lilly & Schwartz, 2009) also failed to include all 44 character values in the CEVPI, leaving out humble. Humble was found to be a character value semi-regularly selected (20^{th} most common out of the 44 character values) in a prior study (Jackson, 2014) of college student conduct administrators that utilized the CEVPI. Independent was a value regularly selected by college students (Brown, 2007; Lilly & Schwartz, 2009) and student affairs professionals (Jackson, 2014; Tull & Medrano, 2008) in studies utilizing the CEVPI. In past studies (Brown, 2007; Lilly & Schwartz, 2009), independent tied ambitious as the character value most held by surveyed college students. Based on the prevalence of humble and independent as character values identified as important or selected as top values by study participants, it is likely they would have been selected by at least some participants in this study. Their omission may have resulted in a change in the values students identified as top values and may negatively impact the high reliability of the CEVPI (Chen, 2005).

Implications for Practice

The differences in the reasons participants gave for not intervening in active and potential sexual assaults suggests greater education about the serious risk present in situations that could lead to sexual assault may reduce barriers for intervention in these incidents and increase campus safety. Greater education about the prevalence of campus sexual assault, situational factors that can lead to sexual assault, and the effectiveness of bystander intervention can successfully prevent harm from occurring and may help bystanders recognize the need to intervene in situations that have not yet progressed to sexual assault and empower them to do so. Greater education may also help address the relationship between a lack of intervention and the selection of optimistic as a personal value and/or respectful as a peer value.

In addition to helping students recognize the serious risks in situations that could lead to sexual assault and feel empowered as bystanders, campus communities would be well served by promoting the personal value of compassionate to students and the belief that their peers are committed and responsible as these personal and peer values were associated with greater intervention rates in study participants. As this study has found a relationship between certain values and bystander intervention in incidents of college sexual assault and has also found significant differences between the personal values of men and women, it is recommended that when single-gender sexual assault prevention education is occurring that it include a basis in and recognition of student values. Tying bystander intervention to personal and community values has the potential to increase pro-social helping behavior.

In addition to increasing risk awareness education and promoting pro-social values related the care of and responsibility for others that were found to be related to increased bystander intervention behavior, it is recommended that bystander intervention education continue. As the majority (96%) of study participants who observed an incident of sexual assault did not select the response "I considered intervening but did not know how to do so," and all incoming students received bystander intervention training as part of orientation, it appears that the bystander intervention training they received is beneficial and should continue. The Green Dot bystander education program the participating university utilizes with students includes information about multiple intervention strategies with varying level of directness and risk. As the most common reason participants did not intervene was due to their belief that it was not safe to intervene, continuing to train students in multiple ways to intervene is recommended. Training on intervention strategies that allow those who face barriers to intervention to intervene in less direct ways that they perceive as less risky will be beneficial as findings suggest that those who face barriers to intervention are less likely to observe incidents in need of intervention. Additionally, as research has found that college students who know more about campus policies and processes are more likely to intervene (Toews et al., 2020), it is recommended that this training include information about campus policies and procedures and campus resources who can intervene to help in situations. This study confirms prior findings about the benefit of bystander intervention training and an informed student body.

Summary

Sexual assault is negatively impacting college students and communities. One in four undergraduate college women, one in 15 undergraduate college men, and one in four undergraduate transgender/gender queer/gender non-conforming students are sexually assaulted while in college (Cantor et al., 2020). Sexual violence, and the negative impact it has on college students (e.g., Bowler, 2018; Chang & Hirsch, 2015; Mellins et al., 2018; Patterson Silver Wolf et al., 2016; Stephens, 2016), has been identified as a preventable public health problem by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (Smith et al., 2015). While there are many prevention programs available to colleges and universities that have demonstrated success in improving one or more learning objectives in participants (NASPA, 2020), additional insight into these acts of violence and how to prevent them is needed to reduce sexual violence on college campuses.

This study of the relationship between college student values and bystander intervention in incidents of college sexual assault may provide opportunities to increase effectiveness of current sexual assault prevention education and bystander intervention programs. By recognizing how participants respond differently to incidents that could lead to sexual assault and active sexual assaults, values differences between men and women, and the significant relationship between some values and intervention, greater insight into bystander behaviors have been identified which may provide ways to increase intervention rates. Incorporating insight learned about college student values and bystander intervention may help reduce rates of college sexual violence and create safer campuses.

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